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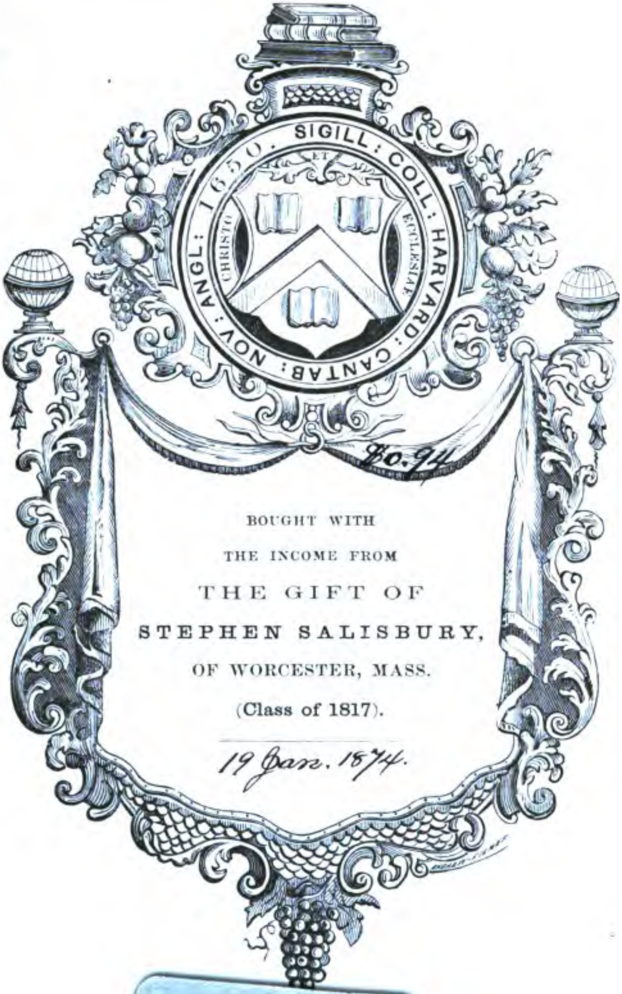
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A HELP

TO

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A HELP
TO LATIN GRAMMAR,

OR THE

FORM AND USE
OF WORDS IN LATIN.

With Progressive Exercises.

BY

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PREFACE.

I OFFER this volume as a help to boys beginning to learn Latin, in the hope that it will remove some of the obstacles, which they are sure to meet with in their difficult task.

I trust also that it may be found of service by those engaged in the no less difficult task of teaching the Elements of Latin. It is not intended as a rival to any of the excellent Grammars now in use; but perhaps it may help the beginner to understand them. Whatever Grammar he uses, he may, I trust with advantage, use this Help by its side. For it appeared to me that a book might be made to do in some measure the work of the teacher; and that his labour would be considerably diminished, if he were enabled to lay before his pupils a written explanation of difficult points, instead of going over the same ground with them again and again by word of mouth.

Such an explanation I have attempted to supply in the following pages. I have in them directed attention chiefly to the Use of Words. At the same time, in order to render the work complete in itself, I have introduced all such Examples and Forms, as it is usual or expedient for a boy to learn before beginning to translate. But I have not touched on Roots or Crude Forms, as I hardly think that they can be studied with profit by the mere beginner. And I have adopted the old and ordinary classification of Nouns and Verbs, as being the one that he can most quickly and readily learn. For I believe that he cannot too soon be led on from words to sentences, and from unconnected sentences to a continuous narrative. With this view I am preparing an edition of an easy Latin author, which he will be able to commence as soon as he has finished the Exercises in this volume, and in which he will find several important rules, which we have not yet been able to touch upon, both illustrated and explained.

My aim then throughout has been to call into play as much as possible the faculties of the student himself; to compel him to exercise, not merely his memory, but his reason; and to inculcate accuracy both of thought and expression. I shall be glad if I have so far succeeded as in any measure to facilitate the progress of the pupil, and lighten the toil of his instructor.

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TO THE PUPIL.

Read over the first four Chapters carefully; learning the Examples by heart; and at the same time trying the corresponding Exercises.

Go on with Chapter VII.; and at once begin to make an English Vocabulary, according to the directions given in the note, p. 87.

Proceed with Chapters V. VI. and VIII. and the corresponding Exercises, in order.

It must be understood that a few words, as Root, Subject, &c. have in the following pages a special sense.

INTRODUCTION.

1. *Grammar.* **GRAMMAR** is the science which determines the form and use of words.

2. *Words.* The Use of words is to make known what passes in the mind. The Form of words shews their use.

3. *Object.* The mind receives impressions, either through the senses; as of a man, a chair, a noise, a smell: or not directly through the senses; as of virtue, fancy, love.

Whatever is thus impressed on the mind, whether directly through the senses or not, is called in grammar an *object*, because it is thus *objected* or laid before the mind.

4. *Noun.* In order to speak of these objects, we give them names, which are called in English *Nouns*, from the Latin Nomen, name.

The Noun therefore may be defined as the name of anything that can be impressed on the mind. Forming as it does a distinct class of words, it is called a Part of Speech.

5. *Adjective.* The mind is so constituted, that no object can be impressed on it, except as having some *Quality*. We see a chair. That is, a chair is impressed on the mind through the eye; but the mind cannot conceive it, except as having some quality, being of some sort; large or small; handsome or ugly; heavy or light; and so on.

Since then the use of words or speech is to make known what passes in the mind; and since the mind cannot conceive an Object except as having some Quality; it follows that there must be in speech, beside the Noun which names the Object, certain words to express the Quality.

The *Adjective* is such a word, so called from the Latin Adjectus, added; because it is *added* or joined to the Noun. It cannot be used in speech, except in connexion with a Noun; just as a Quality cannot exist in nature, except in connexion with an Object. Like the Noun, it forms a distinct class of words, and is called a Part of Speech.

6. *Sentence.* We have now two Parts of Speech, and are in a condition to make known what passes in our minds. That is, we can form a *Sentence:* a Sentence being, Words so arranged as to have a meaning; or, which is the same thing, so as to express what passes in the mind.

Man is good.

This is a Sentence; for the words are so arranged as to have a meaning. Man is a Noun, being the name of an Object, which we can see and touch. Good is an Adjective, being joined to the Noun Man, and expressing a Quality residing in the Object, of which Man is the name. The intermediate word *Is,* which simply couples the other two together, like a mark, we will leave for the present.

The Noun and Adjective may be put together differently: as, Good Man. But these words do not make a Sentence; for they do not convey any meaning. They merely name an Object, Man; and state what sort of man is meant, Good Man, but they do not affirm anything about it.

7. *Verb.* Again, Objects are impressed on the mind as Active, as doing something, as performing some action. This, indeed, is the same thing as to say that Objects have an Active Quality, are of an active sort; and therefore, when speaking of Objects as Active, we might employ, as above, the Noun and Adjective. But the Adjective follows the Noun in form, and consequently is not fitted by its form to represent an Object as performing an Action. Some word is wanted, which will represent the Object as performing the Action at certain times, and in certain modes. Such a word is the *Verb:* so called from the Latin Verbum, word. The Verb is a distinct Part of Speech; though differing in little else than form from the Adjective. Other Parts of Speech might indeed be called Verbs; but this is so called, because in a single word it tells so much about the Object.

Man *walks.*

The Noun Man names the Object; and the Verb is a word about it, denoting that it performs a certain action, that of walking.

With these Parts of Speech: the Noun, to name the Object;

and the Adjective or Verb, to say something about it: we might express, though awkwardly and lamely, all that passes in our minds. But, for the convenience of speech, other parts have been added, which we will proceed to consider.

8. *Article.* All Objects, having the same name, belong to the same Class. All Objects, having the name Man, belong to the Class Man. It is convenient then that, in speaking of an Object, we should be able to make it clear, whether we mean the Class, or one known Object in the Class, or any Object whatever belonging to the Class. For this purpose we might use an Adjective, because we are merely saying what sort of Object we mean. But in most languages this distinction is expressed by a Part of Speech, called an *Article*.

In English, there are two Articles: *The*, called the Definite Article; and *An* or *A*, called the Indefinite Article.

When no Article is placed before a Noun, the Class is generally meant.

The Definite Article, placed before a Noun, defines the Object named as one known Object marked out of the Class.

The Indefinite Article, placed before a Noun, simply denotes that the Object named belongs to the Class.

Thus if we say, Man walks; we mean that the [1] Class Man is capable of walking. If we say, The Man walks; we mean that one known Object belonging to the Class Man walks. If we say, A Man walks; we mean that an unknown Object, any Object whatever, belonging to the Class Man walks. In the first Sentence we speak of the Class. In the second, we distinguish the Object from all other Objects belonging to the class. In the last, we distinguish the Class to which the Object belongs from all other Classes.

9. *Adverb.* If we frame a Sentence out of the Parts of Speech we have already got, we have

The good man walks.

But the man may be good in a certain way, and may walk in a certain way. The Object named by the Noun Man has certain Qualities, goodness and walking; but these Qualities may be of different Sorts. To express these different Sorts of Qualities, we might use different sorts of Adjectives, as indeed we do in the Degrees of Comparison: but it is found more convenient to employ for the purpose a distinct Part of Speech. This Part of Speech is called an *Adverb*, because it is joined to a Verb; though it is equally correct to join it to an Adjective.

---

[1] It is more common in English to use the plural number when speaking of a class, as Dogs bark, Cats mew.

It is generally formed in English by adding the termination *ly* to an Adjective. Thus if, in the above Sentence, we wish to denote the goodness of the man as uniform, and his walking as rapid, we say,—The *uniformly* good man walks *rapidly*. The Adverb uniformly denotes the Quality of the Quality denoted by the Adjective Good. Rapidly denotes the Quality of the Quality denoted by the Verb walks.

We can even join an Adverb to an Adverb; as

The man walks *extremely* rapidly.

10. *Preposition.* We do not generally speak of an Object by itself; we generally wish to speak of it in connexion with other objects. This connexion may be expressed by changes in the Form of the Noun; as in a great measure it is expressed in Latin. Or it may be expressed by Adjectives compounded with Nouns; as sea-sick, home-sick, sea-worthy, and so on. But in English it is commonly expressed by a distinct Class of Words, called *Prepositions*. They are so called from the Latin Præpositus, placed before, because they are placed before the Nouns which name the Objects so connected. Thus we may say,

The good man walks rapidly *along* the road *from* the town *to* the field *in* the rain *under* an umbrella *with* a dog.

The words Along, From, &c., are Prepositions, placed before the Nouns Road, Town, &c.; and connecting the Objects named by these Nouns with the Object named by the Noun Man.

11. *Pronoun.* There remain Three Parts of Speech, which may be considered as subsidiary to the former. These are the Pronoun, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

We use a Pronoun, which simply means a word used instead of (Pro) a Noun; as I, Thou, He, &c.; in order to avoid the awkwardness of repeating the same Noun.

12. *Conjunction.* We use a Conjunction, which means a Joining Word; as And, Or, But, &c.; either to join together two Sentences, or two Words in the same sentence.

13. *Interjection.* We use an Interjection, which means a Word cast between others, to denote by a single sound a feeling of the mind or body. Oh, Ah, Alas, &c., are Interjections.

14. *Nine Parts of Speech.* Summing up then the Parts of Speech, or distinct Classes of Words, with which in English we frame Sentences; that is, express our meaning one to another; we find that they are Nine in number. They may be defined as follows:—

A *Noun* is the name of an Object. An Object is anything whatever impressed on the mind: anything that we can see, hear, touch, taste, smell, or think of.

An *Adjective* is a Word which, joined to a Noun, denotes that the Object named by it possesses a certain Quality.

A *Verb* is a Word which, joined to a Noun, denotes that the Object named by it possesses a certain Active Quality; that is, performs a certain Action.

An *Article* is a Word which denotes the Quality of an Object in respect of its Class. That is, it shews whether an Object is one known Object in the Class, or any Object whatever belonging to the Class.

An *Adverb* is a Word which, joined to a Verb or Adjective, denotes the Quality of the Quality denoted by the Verb or Adjective.

A *Preposition* is a Word placed before a Noun to connect it with other Nouns.

A *Pronoun* is a Word used instead of a Noun.

A *Conjunction* is a Word which joins together words or sentences.

An *Interjection* is a Sound expressive of feeling.

15. *Latin Language.* Having said thus much of language in general, we shall now speak particularly of the Latin language: that is, of the language formerly spoken by the citizens of Rome, and spread by them over the whole civilized world. It was called Latin, because it was spoken originally, not only in Rome, but in all the other cities of Latium. It was in fact the proper tongue of the Latin people.

16. *Latin Grammar.* Grammar, as was said at the beginning, has to do with the Use and Form of Words. We have, therefore, in dealing with Latin Grammar, to consider how each Part of Speech is used in Latin, and how its Form shews its Use.

There are in Latin only Eight Parts of Speech, or Classes of Words: there being no Article, as in English. The *Words* thus classed are composed of Letters, of which there are in Latin Twenty five; being the same as in English, without W.

CHAPTER I.

THE NOUN.

1. *Definition.* THE Noun is the name of an Object. An Object is anything that we can see, hear, taste, touch, smell, or think of. The Use of a Noun then being to name an Object, we must now see how the Form of a Noun shews its Use.

2. *Number.* We sometimes want to speak of one object by itself; sometimes of two or more objects of the same class taken together. This difference in the *Number* of the objects spoken of is denoted by a change in the form of the Noun. English and Latin Nouns have two *Numbers*, as they are called; the Singular and the Plural. A Noun is said to be in the *Singular* Number, when it shews by its form that it is naming *one* object; as Ros-a, rose: in the *Plural*, when it shews by its form that it is naming *more* (Lat. *plures*) than one object of the same class, as Ros-æ, roses.

3. *Gender.* Objects are either Persons, of the male or female sex; or Things, which are neither male nor female. In English the *Gender* of Nouns corresponds with the sex of the objects which they name. A Noun is said to be of the *Masculine* Gender, when it is the name of a *Male;* of the *Feminine,* when it is the name of a *Female;* of the *Neuter* (which means *neither*) when it is the name of *neither* the one nor the other—that is, of a Thing. But in Latin, while Nouns which name Males are said to be of the Masculine, and Nouns which name Females of the Feminine Gender, Nouns which name Things are of all three Genders. This difference in the gender of the names of things we find established in the language, though the reason for it does not always readily appear.

4. *Case.* We generally want to speak of an object in *connexion* with other objects. This connexion may be expressed by Prepositions, and is for the most part so expressed in English. But in Latin, the *circumstances* in which an object is placed, whether spoken of by itself, or in connexion with other objects, are shewn by a change in the form of its Noun. Thus in

Latin a Noun has six forms, called *Cases:* The Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Vocative, Ablative.

5. *Example.* You will perhaps best understand the meaning of these Forms, if we follow a Noun through its various changes. Let us take Serva, a (female) Slave. The part *Serv* we call the Root.

6. *Nominative.* If an object is spoken of as *acting,* its Noun is in the *Nominative* Case.

Serv-*a* cantat. The slave sings.

Serv-*a* portat puellam. The slave carries the girl.

In each sentence, the object Slave, being spoken of as *acting,* has its Noun in the *Nominative* Case. The N. we see is formed by adding *a* to the root.

7. *Genitive.* If an object is spoken of as *possessing* another object, its Noun is in the *Genitive* Case.

Filia serv-*æ* cantat. The daughter of the slave, or the slave's daughter, sings.

Here the object Slave *possesses* the daughter; and therefore its Noun is in the *Genitive* Case. The G. we see is formed by adding *æ* to the root.

8. *Accusative.* If an object is spoken of as *acted on directly* by another object, its *Noun* is in the *Accusative* Case.

Puella portat serv-*am*. The girl carries the slave.

Here the object Slave is spoken of as *acted on directly* by the object Girl, and therefore its Noun is in the *Accusative* Case. This Case is formed by adding *am* to the root.

9. *Dative.* If an object is spoken of as *acted on indirectly* by another object, its Noun is in the *Dative* Case.

Puella dat rosam serv-*æ*. The girl gives a rose to the slave.

Here the object Rose is acted on directly, and therefore its Noun is in the Accusative. The object Slave is *acted on indirectly.* It is not moved or changed by the acting object, but is influenced by the result of the action. Its Noun therefore is put in the *Dative.* This Case is formed, like the Genitive, by adding *æ* to the root.

10. *Vocative.* If an object is *spoken to,* its Noun is in the *Vocative* Case.

Serv-*a,* cantas. Slave, thou singest.

The *Vocative* is the same in form as the Nominative.

11. *Ablative.* If an object is spoken of as *subordinate* to, or *accompanying* the action of, another object, its Noun is in the *Ablative* Case.

Filia donat puellam serv-*â*. The daughter presents the girl with a slave.

Here the object Slave is spoken of, not as acted on directly or indirectly by the daughter, but as *accompanying*, or telling something further about, the action of the daughter.

Therefore its Noun is in the *Ablative* Case; which we see is formed by adding *â* to the root.

12. *Plural.* In the preceding examples we have spoken of a *single* object out of a Class—*one* slave; and therefore the Noun Serva has been in the *Singular* Number. In the following example, we shall speak of *more* than one object out of a class—of more slaves than one; and therefore the Noun Serva will be in the *Plural* Number. The circumstances of these objects (the slaves), whether spoken of alone, or in connexion with other objects, will be exactly the same as in the former examples; and therefore the Noun will be in the same Cases; but it will have different terminations to shew that it is in the Plural Number.

N. Serv-*æ* cantant. The slaves sing.

G. Filiæ serv-*arum* cantant. The daughters of the slaves sing.

A. Puellæ portant serv-*as*. The girls carry the slaves.

D. Puellæ dant rosas serv-*is*. The girls give roses to the slaves.

V. Serv-*æ*, cantatis. Slaves, ye sing.

Ab. Filiæ donant puellas serv-*is*. The daughters present the girls with slaves.

13. *Declensions.* We thus see how, by changing the termination of the Noun Serva, we can shew whether we mean to speak of the object Slave as *acting*, or as *acted* upon, or as *possessing*, or as *accompanying*, or as *addressed;* and again, whether we wish to speak of *one* slave, or of *more* than one Slave, as in these circumstances. But we are not yet in a condition to shew this, when speaking of any objects whatever; because all Nouns do not form their Cases in the same way. As there are Five ways of forming the Cases of a Noun, Nouns are divided into Five Classes, called Declensions; and the sign or characteristic of each Declension is the termination of the Genitive Case.

A Noun with its G. ending in *æ* is of the 1st Declension. 14. *Five.*

i	2nd
is	3rd
ūs	4th
ei	5th

We shall now give examples of the Five Declensions by declining, as it is called, a Noun in each. To decline a Noun is to make it pass through its Cases.

FIRST DECLENSION. 15. *First.*

a.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
N.	Ros-a, a rose	Ros-æ, roses
G.	Ros-æ, of a rose	Ros-arum, of roses
D.	Ros-æ, to a rose	Ros-is, to roses
[1]A.	Ros-am, a rose	Ros-as, roses
V.	Ros-a, O rose	Ros-æ, O roses
Ab.	Ros-ā, by[2] a rose	Ros-is, by roses

b. Nouns of this declension are of the f. *gender,* except the names of males; as nauta, sailor.

c. The N. ends in *a,* except of a few Proper[3] Nouns; as Æneas, Anchises, which retain their Greek form.

d. All Nouns ending in *a* are of the 1st D., except a few Greek Nouns; as poema, poem.

e. *Rule.* If a Noun has its G. ending in *æ,* decline it like Rosa.

That is, apply the same terminations through all the cases to its root. By the *root* of a Noun we mean that part of it which comes before the termination of the G. case.

---

[1] When going through Serva we put the A. before the D. for convenience of explanation, but in grammars the D. always stands first.

[2] When going through Serva we gave *with* as one of the many prepositions which express in English the force of the Ab. case. *By* is another, and, perhaps, the most common. In no case do the English words express exactly the same as the Latin form. For the future, therefore, we shall not give them.

[3] A noun is called *Proper,* when it is the proper or peculiar name of an individual, as Æneas, Thomas: *Common,* when it is common to a class, as man, dog.

16. *Second.*

SECOND DECLENSION.

a.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
N.	Domin-us, lord	Domin-i, lords
G.	Domin-i	Domin-orum
D.	Domin-o	Domin-is
A.	Domin-um	Domin-os
V.	Domin-e	Domin-i
Ab.	Domin-o	Domin-is

b. This declension is not so uniform as the first. The N. does not always end in *us*, like Dominus. Some nouns end in *er*, as Liber, book. The G. is Libr-i, the *e* being dropped. Some few ending in *er* retain the *e*; as Puer, G. Puer-i, boy. In both, the V. is the same as the N. In all other respects these nouns are declined like Dominus.

c. In all declensions, it must be remembered, the *Vocative* is the same as the N. in the P. number; and also in the S., except only when the noun is of the 2nd D. and ends in *us;* when the V. ends in *e;* as, Dominus, V. Domine.

d. Proper names in *ius*, with Filius and Genius, have the V. contracted; as Filius, V. Fili.

The G. also is often contracted; as Virgilius, G. Virgilî: Ingenium, G. Ingenî.

e. Most nouns ending in *us*[1] and *er* are of the m. gender. But the names of places and trees are generally feminine.

f. Neuter. Beside *us* and *er*, the N. also ends in *um*, and then the noun is of the n. gender. It is declined like Dominus, subject to the two following rules, which hold good for all nouns and adjectives of the n. gender.

g. 1. The N. P. ends in *a*.

2. In each number, the A. and V. cases are the same as the N.

h. A neuter noun therefore is declined thus:

	Singular.	*Plural.*
N. A. V.	Regn-um, kingdom	Regn-a, kingdoms
G.	Regn-i	Regn-orum
D. Ab.	Regn-o	Regn-is

---

[1] Thus while the root *serv* with the ending *a* is of the 1st D. and f. gender, the same root with the ending *us* is of the 2nd D. and m. gender. That is, serv-*a* means *female* slave; serv-*us*, *male* slave.

If a noun has its G. ending in *i*, decline it like Dominus, remembering the rule for the V. case; that terminations are sometimes contracted; and the rules for the n. gender. *k. Rule.*

17. *Third.* *a.*

THIRD DECLENSION.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
N. V.	Lapis, stone	Lapid-es, stones
G.	Lapid-is	Lapid-um
D.	Lapid-i	Lapid-ibus
A.	Lapid-em	Lapid-es
Ab.	Lapid-e	Lapid-ibus

N. V.	Nub-es, cloud	Nub-es, clouds
G.	Nub-is	Nub-ium
D.	Nub-i	Nub-ibus
A.	Nub-em	Nub-es
Ab.	Nub-e	Nub-ibus

b. This is the most variable of the declensions. The N. has many different endings, and the G. is formed in many different ways. And there is some variety in the other cases. If we look at the two examples, we see that the G. of Lapis is longer by a syllable than the N.; while the G. and N. of Nubes are of the same length. Hence the latter is called a Parisyllabic, the former an Imparisyllabic Noun. And we see that the G. P. of Lapis is formed by adding *um*: of Nubes, by adding *ium* to the root.

c. Hence the rule:

Nouns increasing in the G. take *um* in the G. P.; Nouns not increasing take *ium*.

d. To this, however, there are several exceptions. Nouns ending in *s* after a consonant, and several monosyllables, though increasing in the G., take *ium*: while the following, though not increasing, take *um*:

Pater, father; Mater, mother;
Proles, offspring; Frater, brother;
Also youth, or Juvenis:
Senex, old man; bread, or Panis;
Vates, prophet; dog, or Canis;
Likewise bird, or Volucris.

e. Some Parisyllabic Nouns, which end in *is*, retain the *i* in the A. and Ab. S.: as Vis, force; A. Vim; Ab. Vi: Sitis, thirst: and generally, the names of towns and rivers: as Tiberis, the Tiber.

f. Some retain the *i* in the Ab. only: as Canalis, canal. Some take *e* or *i* in both cases: as Clavis, key.

g. *Neuter.* Nouns of this declension are of all genders. The following are examples of Neuter Nouns:

	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
N. A. V.	Mar-e, sea	Mar-ia	Os, mouth	Or-a
G.	Mar-is	Mar-ium	Or-is	Or-um
D.	Mar-i	Mar-ibus	Or-i	Or-ibus
Ab.	Mar-i	Mar-ibus	Or-e	Or-ibus

Neuter Nouns in *e*, *al*, and *ar* are for the most part declined like Mare; the rest like Os. Observe that, when the G. P., in accordance with the above rule (*c*), ends in *ium*, the N. P. ends in *ia*, and the Ab. S. (generally) in *i*.

h. From what has been said it will appear that no absolute rule can be given for this declension. The following must therefore be considered as liable to exception.

Rule. If a Noun has its G. case ending in *is*, decline it like Lapis; remembering the rules for the n. gender; and when the G. P. should end in *ium*, instead of *um*.

18. *Fourth.*

FOURTH DECLENSION.

a.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
N. V.	Grad-us, step	Grad-ūs, steps
G.	Grad-ūs	Grad-uum
D.	Grad-ui	Grad-ibus
A.	Grad-um	Grad-ūs
Ab.	Grad-u	Grad-ibus

b. This declension is a contracted form of the third: Gradus, G. Gradŭis, contracted into Gradūs; Ab. Gradŭe, contracted into Gradū.

c. Some Nouns take *ubus* instead of *ibus* in D. and Ab.: as

Portus, harbour; joint, or artus;
Tribus, tribe; and birth, or partus.
Also those which have *c* before *u*; as arcus, bow.

d. *Neuter.* The only terminations of the N. case are *us*, when the

Noun is generally masculine; and *u* when it is always neuter. A Neuter Noun is declined thus:

	Singular.	*Plural.*
N. A. V.	Corn-u, horn	Corn-ua, horns
G.	Corn-ūs	Corn-uum
D. Ab.	Corn-u	Corn-ibus

Veru, stake; and sometimes Genu, knee; take *ubus* in the D. and Ab. Plural. All Nouns ending in *u* are of the n. gender and 4th D.

If a Noun has its G. ending in ūs; decline it, if m., like Gradus; if n., like Cornu; remembering when *ubus* should be put instead of *ibus*. *e.* *Rule.*

FIFTH DECLENSION. 19. *Fifth.* *a.*

	Singular.	*Plural.*
N. V.	Faci-es, face	Faci-es, faces
G.	Faci-ei	Faci-erum
D.	Faci-ei	Faci-ebus
A.	Faci-em	Faci-es
Ab.	Faci-e	Faci-ebus

There are not many Nouns of this declension, and almost all are of the f., none are of the n. gender. The N. always ends in *es*. *b.*

The *e* in the termination *ei* is long, if it follows a vowel; short, if it follows a consonant: as Faciēi, Fidĕi. *c.*

If a Noun has its G. ending in *ei*, decline it like Facies. *d.* *Rule.*

As we have now before us examples of the Five Declensions, we can decline most Latin[1] Nouns. But before proceeding to another part of speech, we will say a few more words about declining. 20. *Declining.* *a.*

There are three questions on this subject to be considered:

1. *What* is meant by declining a Noun?
2. *How* is a Noun declined?
3. *Why* is a Noun declined?

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[1] There are several proper names, and other nouns, taken without alteration from the Greek, which are not included in the five declensions, and which the pupil need not trouble himself with at present. There are also some irregular Latin nouns, which will be noticed when they occur.

To these the three following answers may be given:

b. 1. To decline a Noun is to make it pass through its cases. Cases are certain forms which the Noun assumes. To say why it assumes them is to answer the third question.

c. 2. A Noun is declined by adding a set of terminations, one for each case, to its root. The *root* of a Noun is that part of it which comes before the termination of the G. case. There are five distinct sets of terminations, answering to the Five Declensions into which Nouns are divided. These are:

	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
			Singular.		
G.	æ	i	is	ūs	ei
D.	æ	o	i	ui (or u)	ei
A.	am	um	em (or im)	um	em
Ab.	â	o	e (or i)	u	e
			Plural.		
N. V.	æ	i (or a)	es (a or ia)	ūs (or ua)	es
G.	arum	orum	um (or ium)	uum	erum
D. Ab.	is	is	ibus	ibus (or ubus)	ebus
A.	as	os (or a)	es (a or ia)	ūs (or ua)	es

d. In order to know which set we are to use; in other words, to which declension the Noun belongs, the termination of the G. case must be given. But for declining the Noun, not only the termination, but the entire form of the G. case must be given, that we may know what is the root, to which we are to add the terminations. Thus it is not enough to say, Decline Frons; the G. ends in *is*. This being given, we know what set of terminations to add to the root; but we do not know what the root is. We must be told whether Frons, G. Frond-is, leaf; or Frons, G. Front-is, brow, is meant, before we can decline it.

e. We have not given the terminations of the N. S. in the above list; both because they are very various, and because we cannot tell what they are, from knowing the G. case; except when the G. ends in *æ* or *ei*. In many words of the 3rd D., for instance, the termination of the N. S. is lost, being mixed up with the root; as Frond-is, Fronds, Frons. For the same reason, we have not given the terminations of the V. case; which are the same as those of the N.; (except when the N.

ends in *us* and the G. in *i*); nor of the A. case of a Neuter Noun.

f. *Use of N. S.* The N. S. has a use quite independent of the other cases. It is the form always adopted, both in dictionaries and conversation, when we speak, not of the object named by the Noun, but of the Noun itself. Thus, we do not say, Decline Ros, but Rosa; though strictly *a* is the termination, which the Noun takes in a sentence, when the object is spoken of as acting. Similarly, we say, Domino comes from Dominus. Certainly, if any form, and not the root, is to be used when speaking of a Noun, the N. S. is the simplest and most convenient. In such sentences, the N. S. of the Noun must be considered an Indeclinable Noun; the object named by it being the Noun generally, with its numbers and cases.

g. In declining a Noun then we require both the N. and G. cases to be given; the N., that we may know what we have to decline; the G., that we may know how to decline it. And a Noun is declined by adding to its root a set of terminations varying with the terminations of its G. case.

h. 3. The reason *why* a Noun is declined is that we may be able to shew by its form, as it passes through its cases, whether we mean to speak of the object which it names as *acting*, or as *acted upon*, or as *possessing*, or as *accompanying*, or as *addressed;* and again, whether we mean to speak of *one* such object, or of *more* than one: in other words, that we may shew the circumstances in which an object is placed, whether standing alone, or in connexion with other objects.

21. *Cases.* Cases therefore may be defined as, Certain forms which the Noun assumes, in order to shew the circumstances in which the object is placed.

22. *Numbers.* Numbers as, Certain forms which the Noun assumes in order to shew whether *one* object or *more* objects than one are spoken of.

CHAPTER II.

THE ADJECTIVE.

1. *Definition.* An Adjective is a Word, which, joined to a Noun, denotes that the object named by the Noun possesses a certain quality: as Good man, Pure water.

2. *Numbers and Cases.* Being thus joined to a Noun in *use*, it may be expected to agree with it in *form*. And so it does in Latin: for it passes through Two Numbers and Six Cases, just like a noun.

3. *Genders.* It passes, moreover, through three forms, called Genders; Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

In this it differs somewhat from the Noun, as will be explained hereafter.

4. *Classes.* Adjectives may be divided into Two Classes: those which have the G. S. m. ending in *i*, and those which have it ending in *is*.

5. *First. a.* Adjectives of the First Class; viz., those which have the G. S. m. ending in *i*; have three terminations to denote gender. Thus we say, Bonus dominus, good lord; Bona rosa, good rose; Bonum regnum, good kingdom; and so on throughout the cases; Bonus being declined like Dominus in the m., Rosa in the f., and Regnum in the n. gender.

Singular.

	M.	F.	N.
N.	Bon-us	bon-a	bon-um
G.	Bon-i	bon-æ	bon-i
D.	Bon-o	bon-æ	bon-o
A.	Bon-um	bon-am	bon-um
V.	Bon-e	bon-a	bon-um
Ab.	Bon-o	bon-â	bon-o

Plural.

	M.	F.	N.
N. V.	Bon-i	bon-æ	bon-a
G.	Bon-orum	bon-arum	bon-orum
D. Ab.		Bon-is	
A.	Bon-os	bon-as	bon-a

Most Adjectives of this class end in *us;* but there are some ending in *er*, just as there are some nouns of the 2nd D. ending in *er*. They are declined like Bonus; except that, as in the nouns, the V. is the same as the N. Like the nouns, too, they do not form the G. in the same way; some retaining the *e*, some dropping it. Thus, *b.*

	M.	F	N.
N. V.	Tener (tender)	tener-a	tener-um
G.	Tener-i	tener-æ	tener-i.
N. V.	Niger (black)	nigr-a	nigr-um
G.	Nigr-i	nigr-æ	nigr-i

6. *How declined.* An Adjective we see, like a noun, is declined by adding a set of terminations, one for each case, to its *root;* the *root* being that part which comes before the termination of the G. case. And the termination of the G. S. m. tells us which set we are to add.

7. *Use of N. S. m.* The N. S. m. of the Adjective, like the N. S. of the Noun, is the form always adopted, when we wish to speak of the Adjective itself. It may therefore be considered the Noun or Name of the Adjective, which, with all its various forms, is the object named by it.

8. *G. S. m.* Consequently, for declining an Adjective, we require the N. S. m. to be given, that we may know *what* we have to decline; and the G. S. m., that we may know *how* to decline it.

9. *Second. Class. a.* Adjectives of the 2nd Class; viz., those which have the G. S. m. ending in *is;* have two terminations to denote gender: one, for the m. and f.; as Dulcis dominus, sweet lord, Dulcis rosa, sweet rose; the other for the n.; as Dulce regnum, sweet kingdom. They are declined like a noun of the 3rd D.; thus,

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
N. V.	Dulc-is	dulc-e	Dulc-es	dulc-ia
G.	Dulc-is		Dulc-ium	
D. Ab.[1]	Dulc-i		Dulc-ibus	
A.	Dulc-em	dulc-e	Dulc-es	dulc-ia

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[1] Observe, the Ab. S. ends in *i*, like Canalis; not in *e*, like most nouns of the 3rd D. (I. 17. f.)

Adjectives of this class generally end in *is*, and are declined like Dulcis, not increasing in the G. case.

b. Some which seem anciently to have ended in *is*, end in *er*. Thus, though unaltered in other respects, they have three terminations in the N. S. denoting gender; as,

	M.	F.	N.
N.	Celer (quick)	celer-is	celer-e
G.		Celer-is	
N.	Acer (keen)	acr-is	acr-e
G.		Acr-is	

c. Those which do not end in *is* or *er* have only one termination in the N. S. to denote gender; as Ingens homo, big man; Ingens femina, big woman; Ingens monstrum, big monster.

In the other cases, they are declined like Dulcis; except that they take both *e* and *i* in the Ab. S.; and some few take *a*[1] and *um* in the N. and G. P. Moreover, they almost all increase by a syllable in the G. case; as Ingens, G. Ingent-is; Felix, G. Felic-is; happy.

10. *Rule.* On the whole, there will be found little exception to the following rule:

If the G. of an Adjective end in *i*, decline it like Bonus; if in *is*, like Dulcis.

11. *G. in ius.* a. There are, besides, Nine Adjectives of three terminations, which form the G. and D. S. in *ius* and *i;* unus, one; alius, other; ullus, any; nullus, none; solus, alone; totus, whole; uter, which of two; alter, one of two; neuter, neither. Thus:

	M.	F.	N.
N.	Null-us	Null-a	Null-um
G.		Null-ius	
D.		Null-i	

in the other cases it is declined like Bonus.

b. The G. of Uter is Utr-ius; of Neuter, Neutr-ius; of Alter, Alter-ius. Declined like Nullus.

c. Alius is slightly different.

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[1] As Vetus, veter-is, veter-a, veter-um, old; like Os, or-is, or-a, or-um (I. 17. g.). Most Adjectives of this sort, however, end in *s*, preceded by a consonant; and therefore, in accordance with the usual Exception (I. 17. d.), have the G. P. in *ium*, though increasing by a syllable; as Ingens, Felix (felics).

	M.	F.	N.
N.	Ali-us	ali-a	ali-ud
G.		Alī-us (contr. from ali-ius)	
D.		Ali-i	

12. *Comparison.* *a.* If two or more objects possess the same quality in different degrees, we can *compare* them together in our minds, and express the difference in speech by changing the form of the Adjective. Thus, if we compare together two objects, A and B, both sweet, but with different degrees of sweetness, we can say that A is *sweeter* than B, meaning that A has the quality sweetness, in a greater degree than B.

If we compare three objects, A, B, and C, all sweet, but with different degrees of sweetness, we can say that A is sweeter than either B or C. Or in this case, where three or more objects are compared, we can say that A is the *sweetest* of the whole number. But we do not use this form, when only *two* are compared. We do not say, A is the sweetest of the two.

b. An Adjective thus changing its form is said to pass through Degrees of Comparison. The original form *Sweet* is said to be in the *Positive* Degree; *Sweeter* in the *Comparative; Sweetest* in the *Superlative.*

c. There is no real difference, it appears, between the Comparative and Superlative Degrees. Whether we say, A is sweeter than B and C; or, A is the sweetest of the three; we mean exactly the same thing. The difference is simply one of form. But since the Superlative form of an Adjective attached to a noun implies that the object possesses the quality in a greater degree than *two* others at least; whereas the Comparative need only imply that the object possesses the quality in a greater degree than *one* other; the use of the Superlative has come to imply that the quality is possessed in a greater degree than it is when the Comparative is used. And often all idea of comparison is lost, and the use of the Superlative merely implies that the object possesses the quality in a very great degree; as, "They lived in the greatest comfort."

d. In Latin the Comparative and Superlative are generally formed by adding *ior* and *issimus* to the root; as,

Pos.	G.	Comp.	Sup.
Carus, dear	car-i	car-ior	car-issimus
Dulcis, sweet	dulc-is	dulc-ior	dulc-issimus
Felix, happy	felic-is	felic-ior	felic-issimus

e. But Adjectives in *er* add *rimus* to the N. S. for the superlative; Adjectives in *ilis* add *limus* to the root; as,

Pos.	G.	Comp.	Sup.
Pulcher, fair	pulchr-i	pulchr-ior	pulcher-rimus
Facilis, easy	facil-is	facil-ior	facil-limus

f. Adjectives in *us*, with a vowel before the *us*, do not generally change their form to express comparison, but take instead the adverbs, Magis, more; and Maximè, most: as Assiduus, assiduous; magis assiduus, more assiduous; maximè assiduus, most assiduous.

g. The Comparative is declined like an Adjective of the second Class; as,

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
N.	Dulcior	dulcius	Dulcior-es	dulcior-a[1]
G.	Dulcior-is		Dulcior-um	
D.	Dulcior-i		Dulcior-ibus	
A.	Dulcior-em	dulcius	Dulcior-es	dulcior-a
Ab.	Dulcior-e or i		Dulcior-ibus	

The Superlative is declined like Bonus.

h. Some Adjectives pass through their degrees of comparison quite irregularly; as,

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Bonus, good;	Melior, better;	Optimus, best;
Malus, bad;	Pejor, worse;	Pessimus, worst;
Parvus, little;	Minor, less;	Minimus, least;
Multus, much;	Plus, more;	Plurimus, most;
Magnus, great;	Major, greater;	Maximus, greatest;

and a few others.

13. *Numerals.* *a.* There are certain Adjectives which denote the quality of objects in respect of quantity or *Number*. Hence they are called *Numerals*, from Numerus, number.

b. There are two sorts of Numerals, called Cardinals and

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[1] It takes *a* and *um* in the N. and G. P.; because it increases in the G. S. See 9. c. note.

Ordinals. *Cardinals* answer the question Quot? How many? and simply denote the quality of objects in respect of number.

c. *Ordinals* answer the question Quotus? In what rank? and denote the quality of an object, in respect of number, as compared with other objects.

d. We subjoin a list of Cardinals, Ordinals, and their corresponding Adverbs, which will be referred to in their place :—

Cardinals.	Ordinals.	Numeral Adverbs.
1 Unus	Primus, first	Semel, once
2 Duo	Secundus, second	Bis, twice
3 Tres	Tertius, third	Ter, thrice
4 Quatuor	Quartus, fourth	Quater, four times
5 Quinque	Quintus	Quinquies
6 Sex	Sextus	Sexies
7 Septem	Septimus	Septies
8 Octo	Octavus	Octies
9 Novem	Nonus	Novies
10 Decem	Decimus	Decies
11 Undecim	Undecimus	Undecies
12 Duodecim	Duodecimus	Duodecies
13 Tredecim	Tertius decimus	Tredecies
14 Quatuordecim	Quartus decimus	Quatuordecies
15 Quindecim	Quintus decimus	Quindecies
16 Sedecim	Sextus decimus	Sedecies
17 Septendecim	Septimus decimus	Septies decies
18 Duodeviginti	Duodevicesimus	Duodevicies
19 Undeviginti	Undevicesimus	Undevicies
20 Viginti	Vicesimus	Vicies
21 Unus et viginti	Vicesimus	Semel et vicies
30 Triginta	Tricesimus	Tricies
40 Quadraginta	Quadragesimus	Quadragies
50 Quinquaginta	Quinquagesimus	Quinquagies
60 Sexaginta	Sexagesimus	Sexagies
70 Septuaginta	Septuagesimus	Septuagies
80 Octoginta	Octogesimus	Octogies
90 Nonaginta	Nonagesimus	Nonagies
100 Centum	Centesimus	Centies
200 Ducent-i, æ, a	Ducentesimus	Ducenties
300 Trecenti	Trecentesimus	Trecenties

400	Quadringenti	Quadringentesimus	Quadringenties
500	Quingenti	Quingentesimus	Quingenties
600	Sexcenti	Sexcentesimus	Sexcenties
700	Septingenti	Septingentesimus	Septingenties
800	Octingenti	Octingentesimus	Octingenties
900	Nongenti	Nongentesimus	Nongenties
1000	Mille	Millesimus	Millies
2000	Duo millia	Bismillesimus	Bis millies

e. Duo is declined thus:

		Plural.	
N.	Du-o	du-æ	du-o
G.	Du-orum	du-arum	du-orum
D. Ab.	Du-obus	du-abus	du-obus
A.	Du-os, or duo	du-as	du-o

Tres is declined like Dulces. The other Cardinals up to Centum are undeclined.

f. The following examples will shew the use of these Numerals. How many sons has he? Three. The Cardinal *Three* denotes the quality possessed by the sons in respect of number. Which son does he love best? The third. The Ordinal *Third* denotes a quality possessed by the favourite son, in respect of number, as compared with the other sons.

CHAPTER III.

THE PRONOUN.

1. *Use.* We use speech, not only to relate, but to converse. That is, we not only speak *of*, but *to*, objects. If John speaks to Charles of George, he says, 'George loves;' that is, he calls the object of which he is speaking by his name or noun George. Now it is clear that if John were speaking to Charles of himself, he might in like manner say, John loves; calling himself, the object spoken of, by his name John. Or again, if he were speaking to Charles of Charles, he might say, Charles loves. But it is equally clear that, in conversation, this constant repetition of the noun would be very awkward. To avoid this, the Pronoun has been introduced, which means, 'A word used instead of a noun.' Thus John, speaking of himself, would say, I love; if speaking to Charles of Charles, he would say, Thou lovest.

2. *Personal Pronouns.* *a.* I and Thou are called Personal Pronouns, because they stand for Persons. And as the person speaking ranks first, the person spoken to second; *I* is called the Pronoun for the First Person, *Thou* for the Second Person. Any other person spoken of is called the Third Person; and for this there is also a Pronoun in some languages. We might say, George will come, when George is ready; but instead of repeating the noun George, we say 'George will come when *he* is ready.'

b. First. In Latin, the Pronoun for the First Person is Ego, I. As might be expected of a word standing for a noun, it expresses by its form Number and Circumstance. That is, it has Numbers and Cases. It is declined thus:

	Singular.	*Plural.*
N.	Ego, I	Nos, we
G.	Mei, of me, *or* my	Nostrum *or* nostri, of us, *or* our
D.	Mihi, to[1] me	Nobis, to us
A.	Me, me	Nos, us
Ab.	Me, by me	Nobis, by us

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[1] Remember that these English words do not exactly express the Latin forms. See I. 15. a. note.

c. *Second.* Similarly Tu, thou, the Pronoun for the Second Person.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
N. V.	Tu, thou	Vos, ye *or* you
G.	Tui, of thee, *or* thy	Vestrum *or* vestri, of you, *or* your
D.	Tibi, to thee	Vobis, to you
A.	Te, thee	Vos, you
Ab.	Te, by thee	Vobis, by you

d. *Third.* There is in Latin, strictly speaking, no Pronoun for the Third Person. There is a Personal Pronoun, called Reflective; which has no N. case, and, in the other cases, the same form for the three genders and both numbers:

G.	Sui, of himself, herself, itself, themselves
D.	Sibi, to himself, &c.
A.	Se, himself, &c.
Ab.	Se, by himself, &c.

The use of this Pronoun will be explained when it occurs[1].

3. *Possessives.* a. Beside Personal Pronouns, which alone can properly be considered Pronouns, there are others which are called Pronouns, though they are in fact Adjectives. Such are the Pronouns called Possessive. The G. being the case of the possessor, we might say, Liber mei, the book of me. But in saying that the book belongs to me, we mention a quality possessed by the book; and this we may denote by an adjective. Accordingly, we change the G. mei into the Possessive Pronoun, (as it is called) *meus,* and say Liber meus, my book. It is called a Possessive Pronoun, as being the possessive form of the Pronoun Ego; but it is really an adjective, being in form and use exactly like Bonus.

b. The Possessive Pronouns are Meus, my; Tuus, thy; Noster, our; Vester, your; Suus, his, her, its, their, in the sense peculiar to the Reflective Sui. They are declined like an Adjective of the First Class.

4. *Demonstratives.* a. Again, there are *Demonstrative* Pronouns; so called, because they *point* out objects. But if they point out objects as in a certain place or in certain circumstances, they denote qualities belonging to the objects, and therefore are adjectives. They

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[1] It will perhaps be well for the beginner to leave the other Pronouns for the present, and go on with the Verb.

are; Firstly, Hic, Iste, and Ille; Secondly, Is, and its compounds, Ipse, and Idem.

Hic, Iste, and Ille point out objects as connected with the Three Persons. Hic liber, this book by me; Iste liber, that book by you; Ille liber, that book by any third person. They are declined thus: b.

	Singular.			*Plural.*		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N.	Hic	hæc	hoc	Hi	hæ	hæc
G.		Hujus		Horum	harum	horum
D.		Huic			His	
A.	Hunc	hanc	hoc	Hos	has	hæc
Ab.	Hoc	hâc	hoc		His	

N.	Ille	illa	illud	Illi	illæ	illa
G.		Illius[1]		Illorum	illarum	illorum
D.		Illi			Illis	
A.	Illum	illam	illud	Illos	illas	illa
Ab	Illo	illâ	illo		Illis	

Iste is declined like Ille.

Is liber may also be translated 'That book;' but the peculiar use of Is will be better understood by examples. Ipse liber means The book itself; Idem liber, The same book. c.

	Singular.			*Plural.*		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N.	Is	ea	id	Ii *or* ei	eæ	ea
G.		Ejus		Eorum	earum	eorum
D.		Ei			Iis *or* eis	
A.	Eum	eam	id	Eos	eas	ea
Ab.	Eo	eâ	eo		Iis *or* eis	

To decline Idem (is-dem), eadem, ĭdem; affix *dem* to the cases of Is, changing *m* before *d* into *n;* as Eundem, Eorundem.

Ipse is like Ille, except that the N. S. n. is Ipsum, not ipsud.

The above words, when used with nouns, must be considered adjectives. But we shall find that they are often used by themselves, the noun being omitted; in which case they d.

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[1] Observe the resemblance in form to such adjectives as Nullus.

resemble the English Pronoun for the Third Person, He, She, It. Hence they have been usually denominated Pronouns.

5. *Relative.* Again, there is a word Qui, which; called a *Relative Pronoun*, because it *relates* to an object already mentioned, and is used to save repetition of the Noun. But this too, it will be seen, is rather an adjective than a Pronoun.

It is declined thus:

	Singular.			*Plural.*		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N.	Qui	quæ	quod	Qui	quæ	quæ
G.		Cujus		Quorum	quarum	quorum
D.		Cui			Quibus *or* queis	
A.	Quem	quam	quod	Quos	quas	quæ
Ab.	Quo	quâ	quo		Quibus *or* queis	

6. *Interrogative.* The Relative may be made to assume an *Interrogative* form. We may say, Point out the book *which* you bought; or *Which* book did you buy? In such sentences, Quis and Quid are generally used instead of Qui and Quod: as Quis venit, Who comes? Quid agis, What are you doing? The other cases remain the same.

CHAPTER IV.

THE VERB.

A VERB is a word which, joined to a noun, denotes that the object named by it possesses a certain active quality; that is, performs a certain action. 1. *Use.* *a.*

b. Inasmuch as a Verb denotes that an object possesses a quality, it is the same as an adjective. But it is much more flexible in form, and therefore denotes much more than an adjective.

c. The adjective simply denotes that the object possesses the quality. The Verb, by a change of form, can denote the *time* at which the quality is possessed, and the *mode* in which it is possessed. It is therefore much more fitted than the adjective to denote that an object possesses an *active* quality, that is, performs an *action*.

d. The full force of the Verb will appear, if we follow one through its changes of form. Let us take Amo, love.

Am-o, Am-as, Am-at.

2. *Persons.* *a.* The root Am denotes the idea of love. If a person[1] wishes to express that he himself performs the action of loving, he says; Am-o, I love. If he wishes to express to another that he, the other, performs the action, he says; Am-as, thou lovest. If he wishes to express that any other object performs it, he says; Am-at, he loves. In passing through these forms, the Verb is said to have Three *Persons;* called First, Second, and Third. Persons may therefore be defined:

b. Three different forms, which the Verb assumes in order to shew, whether the action is performed by a person speaking of himself, by the object to which he speaks, or by some other object.

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[1] As the verb does not, like the adjective, denote the sex of the object, it makes no matter whether the noun of the object speaking, spoken to, or spoken of, is of the m. f. or n. gender. We use Person in this clause simply as a more convenient word than Object.

3. *Numbers.* Am-amus, Am-atis, Am-ant.

a. If *more* persons than one wish to express that they themselves perform the action, they say; Am-amus, we love. If a person wishes to express to two or more others that they perform it, he says; Am-atis, ye love. If he wishes to express the same of two or more others, he says; Am-ant, they love. In passing through these forms, the Verb is said to have two *Numbers;* called Singular and Plural. Numbers may therefore be defined:

b. Two different forms, which the Verb assumes in order to shew, whether the action is performed by one, or more than one object.

c. In each Number the Verb passes through the Three Persons:

4. *Tenses*
a.
Am-o, am-avi, am-abo,
Am-abam, am-averam, am-avero.

We regard time as Present, Past, or Future. If I wish to express that I perform the action of loving at the *present* time, I say; Am-o, I love. If I wish to express that I performed it at some *past* time, I say; Am-avi, I loved. If I wish to express that I shall perform it at some *future* time, I say; Am-abo, I shall love. Beside these three principal forms, the Verb has three others, by which we can express certain varieties of past time.

In passing through these forms, the Verb is said to have Six *Tenses*, so called from the Latin Tempora, times. Tenses may therefore be defined:

b. Six different forms, which the Verb assumes in order to shew the time at which the action is performed.

c. They are called:

Present	Amo	I love
Perfect	Amavi	I loved
Future	Amabo	I shall love
Imperfect	Amabam	I was loving
Pluperfect	Amaveram	I had loved
Future Perfect	Amavero	I shall have loved

d. In each Tense the Verb passes through Six different forms, as in the Present Tense, to express number and person.

Am-o, am-em, am-a, am-are.

5. *Moods.* *a.* If I wish simply to *state* that I perform the action of loving, I say; Amo, I love. If I wish to express that I perform it, as a fact dependent on, or in any way *subjoined* to, the fact that I perform some other action, I say; Am-em, I may love. If I wish to *order* some one else to perform it, I say; Am-a, love. If I wish simply to *name* the action without saying who performs it, I say; Am-are. In passing through these forms, the Verb is said to have Four *Moods;* so called from the Latin Modi, modes or moods. Moods may therefore be defined:

b. Four different forms, which the Verb assumes in order to shew the mode in which the action is performed.

They are:

c. The *Indicative;* as Am-o, I love; so called, because the fact of the action being performed is simply *indicated* or stated. In this Mood the Verb passes through the Six above-mentioned forms, called Tenses, to denote time.

d. The *Subjunctive;* as Am-em, I may love; so called, because the fact is mentioned as *subjoined* to some other fact. Some word is necessary to subjoin the one fact to the other: for instance Ut, that: as Vivo ut amem, I live that I may love. In this Mood also, the Verb passes through Four different forms to denote time: that is, has Four Tenses.

e. The *Imperative;* as Am-a, love; so called from the Latin *Impero,* I order.

f. The *Infinitive;* as Am-are, to love; so called (from in = not, and finis, limit), because the fact is simply named, without being *limited* as to person or number. In this Mood Present time can be denoted, as Am-are, to love: and Past time, as Am-avisse, to have loved. That is, the Infinitive Mood is said to have Two Tenses.

6. *Participle.* The above forms, by which we can express that an action is performed by different persons, at different times, and in different modes, are peculiar to the Verb. But the Verb also assumes a form, in which it merely denotes that the action is performed by some object; and under this form, as it expresses no more than an adjective, and is declined like an adjective, it is, in fact, an adjective. This form is called a *Participle;* as participating in the nature both of Verb and Adjective. There are two Participles: the Present; as Am-ans, loving; declined

(that is, passing through genders, numbers, and cases) like Ingens: the Future; as Am-aturus, about to love; declined like Bonus.

There are also two other forms, the Gerund and the Supine, which will be noticed hereafter.

7. *Conjugations.* *a.* You see how, by changing the terminations of the Verb Amo, we can shew, ***who*** performs the action of loving, ***when*** the action is performed, and ***how*** the action is performed. But we cannot yet shew as much, when speaking of any action being performed; because all Verbs do not form their moods and tenses in the same way. As there are Four ways of forming the moods and tenses of a Verb, Verbs are divided into ***Four*** Classes, called *Conjugations;* and the sign of each Conjugation is the termination of the Infinitive mood.

b. A Verb with its Infinitive ending

in	āre	is of the 1st Conjugation,
	ēre	2nd
	ĕre	3rd
	īre	4th

c. We will take Amo as an example of the First Conjugation, and conjugate it; that is, make it pass through its moods, tenses, numbers, and persons. The English translations added do not exactly express the Latin forms, which will be explained presently. A syllable is to be pronounced as long, unless the short mark (˘) be placed over it, or over the same syllable in the first person.

8. *First.*

FIRST CONJUGATION.

Amo, Inf. Am-are, love.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

	Singular.		*Plural.*		
1	Am-o,	I love	Am-amus,	we	love
2	Am-as,	thou lovest	Am-atis,	ye	
3	Am-at,	he loveth *or* loves	Am-ant,	they	

Imperfect Tense.

1	Am-abam,	I was	loving	Am-abamus,	we	were loving
2	Am-abas,	thou wast		Am-abatis,	ye	
3	Am-abat,	he was		Am-abant,	they	

Future Tense.

	Singular.			*Plural.*		
1	Am-abo,	I shall	love	Am-abĭmus,	we shall	love
2	Am-abis,	thou wilt		Am-abitis,	ye will	
3	Am-abit,	he will		Am-abunt,	they will	

Perfect Tense.

1	Am-avi,	I loved		Am-avĭmus,	we	loved
2	Am-avisti,	thou lovedst		Am-avistis,	ye	
3	Am-avit,	he loved		Am-averunt, *or*		
				-avere,	they	

Pluperfect Tense.

1	Am-avĕram,	I had	loved	Am-averamus,	we	had loved
2	Am-averas,	thou hadst		Am-averatis,	ye	
3	Am-averat,	he had		Am-averant,	they	

Future Perfect Tense.

1	Am-avĕro,	I shall	have loved	Am-averimus,	he shall	have loved
2	Am-averis,	thou wilt		Am-averitis,	ye will	
3	Am-averit,	he will		Am-averint,	they will	

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2	Am-a, am-ato, love	Am-ate, am-atote, love
3	Am-ato, let him love	Am-anto, let them love

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1	Am-em,	I may	love	Am-emus,	we	may love
2	Am-es,	thou mayest		Am-etis,	ye	
3	Am-et,	he may		Am-ent,	they	

Imperfect Tense.

1	Am-arem,	I might	love	Am-aremus,	we	might love
2	Am-ares,	thou mightest		Am-aretis,	ye	
3	Am-aret,	he might		Am-arent,	they	

Perfect Tense.

1	Am-avĕro,	I may	have loved	Am-averīmus,	we	may have loved
2	Am-averis,	thou mayest		Am-averitis,	ye	
3	Am-averit,	he may		Am-averint,	they	

Pluperfect Tense.

1	Am-avissem,	I might	have loved	Am-avissemus,	we	might have loved
2	Am-avisses,	thou mightest		Am-avissetis,	ye	
3	Am-avisset,	he might		Am-avissent,	they	

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.	*Perfect Tense.*
Am-are, to love.	Am-avisse, to have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present.	*Future.*
Am-ans, loving.	Am-aturus, about to love.

GERUNDS.

Am-andi, Am-ando, Am-andum.

SUPINES.

Am-atum, Am-atu.

9. *Regular verbs.* Almost all Verbs of this conjugation are conjugated exactly like Amo; and such are called Regular. Thus to conjugate Porto, Inf. Portare, you have only to add the same terminations to the root Port, which we have added to the root Am: as Port-o, port-as, port-abam, port-avi, &c. By the *Root* of the Verb we mean that part which comes before the termination of the Infinitive Mood.

10. *Irregular.* But some few verbs are Irregular; forming their Perfect tenses differently, and consequently all the tenses which are formed from the Perfect. These are the Pluperfect and Future Perfect of the Indicative, the Perfect and Pluperfect of the Subjunctive, and the Perfect of the Infinitive: which are formed, as you see, by changing the final *i* of the Perfect into *eram, ero, erim, issem, isse,* respectively; and which are translated into English by help of the auxiliary Verb Have. The other tenses are formed exactly like those of Amo. To conjugate the Verb, therefore, you must know the Perfect tense. This being given, all the rest follow easily.

Take, for example, Seco, Inf. Sec-are, cut; which makes not Sec-avi, but Sec-ui, in the Perfect. The Verb runs thus: Ind. Sec-o, sec-abam, sec-abo; Imper. Sec-a; Subj. Sec-em, sec-arem; just like Amo. Then comes the Perfect Sec-ui; and the Pluperfect, &c., not of course Sec-averam, &c.; but Sec-ueram, sec-uero, sec-uerim, sec-uissem, sec-uisse.

You must keep a list of the Irregular Verbs, putting down each one you meet with under its proper conjugation.

11. *1. S. pres. ind.* You will observe that the form used when we wish to speak of the Verb is the First Person, Singular Number, Present Tense, Indicative Mood: as Amo, Porto, Seco. Just as,

when we speak of a noun, we use the N. S. (I. 20. f.); when of an adjective, the N. S. m. (II. 7). And these are the forms you must always look for in the Vocabulary.

12. *English verb.* a. You will, perhaps, better understand the nature and force of Verbs, if, instead of going on with the Latin, we stop to consider the English Verb. On comparing the two together, a striking difference presents itself. In Latin, the Verb passes through about Seventy different forms, to express that an object or objects perform an action at different times and in different modes.. In common English, the Verb passes through Four. Let us compare the Latin Amo with the English Love.

b. In the *Present*, Indicative, the Latin Verb takes, as you see, six different forms. The English takes two; *Love* (the root) and *Loves*. We have, indeed, given Lovest and Loveth as translations of Amas and Amat; but these forms are nearly obsolete. So too are Thou and Ye. We always use You instead of Ye for the Plural Number; and by a courtesy, common to modern languages, we extend the same form to the Singular. Thus the translation both of Amas and Amatis is, You love.

c. The *Imperfect* tense strictly denotes, as its name imports, that an object at some past time began to perform an action, but did not complete it. For this purpose there are in Latin the six forms, Amabam, &c.; but none in English. We use instead the Participle *Loving*, with the Auxiliary Verb, Was: as, I was loving. The Imp. also denotes use or habit: as, Amabam, I used to love.

d. For the *Future* we have no form in English; but use the auxiliaries Will and Shall, in conjunction with the root: as, I shall[1] love, You will[1] love.

e. For the *Perfect*, which denotes that the action is completed, and therefore marks past time, we have one form *Loved;* which serves for the three persons and two numbers; Lovedst being obsolete.

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[1] Shall denotes obligation from without: Will, resolve from within. If I say, I will go; I mean, I am resolved in my own mind to go. If I say, I *shall* go; I mean, I am obliged to go. When, however, I wish to speak of an action, not as resolved on by myself, nor as forced on me by another, but simply as future, I use Shall in the first person, Will in the others: as, I hope I shall come, I hope you will come, I hope he will come. I do not say Will, when speaking of myself, because I do not wish to express any resolve of my own, but simply an event following in the course of circumstances. I say Will, when speaking to or of other persons, by way of courtesy, as if to imply that their will is in some degree consulted.

f. For the *Pluperfect,* which marks time prior to some past time; and the *Future Perfect,* which marks time prior to some future time; we have no English form; but use the Participle Loved, with the auxiliaries Have and Shall: as in the Sentences, When I last saw her, I had already loved her twelve months. When I next see her, I shall have loved her two years.

g. In the *Imperative* we use only the form *Love* for the second person, both Singular and Plural. Whether addressed to one or more persons, the command runs; Love your enemies. In the third Person we use the Sentences, Let him love, Let them love.

h. For the *Subjunctive* we have no distinct English form. We sometimes use the root love by itself; but more generally in combination with the Auxiliaries, May, Might, Would, &c. Of this Mood you can form but little idea, till you have read and studied a good many sentences both in English and Latin.

k. For the *Infinitive* we have, beside To love, the form *Loving:* as, Loving is better than hating.

l. For the *Participle* we have also the form *Loving.*

The Part. Loved, which we have seen used in conjunction with Auxiliary Verbs, but not as a distinct form, will be considered by and bye.

m. Summing up then the English forms in use, we find, as stated, only Four—Love, Loves, Loved, Loving.

13. *I, You.* Now notice a few results of this difference between English and Latin Verbs. In Latin, Amo, Amas, &c. can stand alone in a sentence, without the Ego, Tu, &c. which properly belong to them. For the terminations *o, as,* &c. shew who it is that loves. But in English, the Pronouns I, You, &c. are necessary. For as Love is the only form for I, We, You, and They; we cannot shew, without using them, who it is that loves. But these pronouns, it must be remembered, do not really form part of the English translations of the Latin forms. That which in English strictly answers to the five Latin forms Amo, amas, amamus, amatis, amant, is simply Love. So that the Pres. tense in English stands really thus:

S. 1 Love 2 Love 3 Loves *P.* 1 Love 2 Love 3 Love

Again, as Loves, Loved, &c. cannot stand alone, we are obliged to have in English a Pronoun for the Third person: He, She, It, They. We cannot say in English, The father chastised the son, because loved him. We must insert the pronoun He; for the form Loved tells us nothing as to the person. But in Latin we can say, Pater castigavit filium, quia amavit; for the form Amavit marks the third person. There is therefore no need of a Pronoun for the third person in Latin. Thus there are in Latin only two perfect Pronouns, Ego and Tu: and these are not used nearly so much as I and You in English. They are only used when we wish to state with peculiar emphasis who it is that performs the action. 14. *He, She, It.*

There is also another result from the scantness of forms in English. Being unable to express what we want by changes of form, we borrow Auxiliary Verbs: and, as we can borrow without stint, we have in fact many more ways for expressing the time and mode in which an action is performed, than there are in Latin. Thus for Amo we can say, I love, do love, am loving: for Amavi, I loved, did love, have loved: each of these phrases or Compounds having a somewhat different shade of meaning. 15. *Compounds.* *a.*

Such Compounds, however, cannot be called Tenses or forms of the Verb Love. Had loved, two words, cannot be a form of the one word Love. They should rather be spoken of as making up the English Compound, that answers to the Latin Pluperfect Amaveram. And so in general the English compounds should be referred to the Latin forms, as to a standard. *b.*

The following are the English forms and compounds that come nearest in sense to the Latin forms. But we cannot pretend to give all the compounds by which the Latin forms are sometimes translated. *c.*

INDICATIVE.

Present	Amo	Love, do love, am loving
Imperfect	Amabam	Was loving, used to love
Future	Amabo	Shall, will love
Perfect	Amavi	Loved, did love, have loved
Pluperfect	Amaveram	Had loved
Future Perfect	Amavero	Shall, will, have loved

IMPERATIVE.

	Amato	Love, let love

Subjunctive.

Present	Amem	Love, may love
Imperfect	Amarem	Might, could, would, should love
Perfect	Amaverim	May have loved
Pluperfect	Amavissem	Might, could, would, should have loved

Infinitive.

Present	Amare	Loving, to love
Perfect	Amavisse	Having loved, to have loved

Participles.

Present	Amans	Loving
Future	Amaturus	About to love.

16. *Second. a.* We will now go on with the Second Conjugation of Latin Verbs; that is, with Verbs whose Infinitive ends in ēre; and we take Moneo, warn, as an example. You can supply yourself the forms and compounds of Warn that answer to the forms of Moneo.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

Moneo, Inf. Mon-ēre, warn.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	Mon-eo	Mon-emus
2	Mon-es	Mon-etis
3	Mon-et	Mon-ent

Imperfect Tense.

1	Mon-ebam	Mon-ebamus
2	Mon-ebas	Mon-ebatis
3	Mon-ebat	Mon-ebant

Future Tense.

1	Mon-ebo	Mon-ebĭmus
2	Mon-ebis	Mon-ebitis
3	Mon-ebit	Mon-ebunt

Perfect Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	Mon-ui	Mon-uĭmus
2	Mon-uisti	Mon-uistis
3	Mon-uit	Mon-uerunt *or* -uere

Pluperfect Tense.

1	Mon-uĕram	Mon-ueramus
2	Mon-ueras	Mon-ueratis
3	Mon-uerat	Mon-uerant

Future Perfect Tense.

1	Mon-uĕro	Mon-uerimus
2	Mon-ueris	Mon-ueritis
3	Mon-uerit	Mon-uerint

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2	Mon-e, -eto	Mon-ete, -etote
3	Mon-eto	Mon-ento

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1	Mon-eam	Mon-eamus
2	Mon-eas	Mon-eatis
3	Mon-eat	Mon-eant

Imperfect Tense.

1	Mon-erem	Mon-eremus
2	Mon-eres	Mon-eretis
3	Mon-eret	Mon-erent

Perfect Tense.

1	Mon-uĕrim	Mon-uerĭmus
2	Mon-ueris	Mon-ueritis
3	Mon-uerit	Mon-uerint

Pluperfect Tense.

1	Mon-uissem	Mon-uissemus
2	Mon-uisses	Mon-uissetis
3	Mon-uissent	Mon-uissent

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, Mon-ere *Perfect,* Mon-uisse

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Mon-ens *Future,* Mon-iturus

GERUNDS.

Mon-endi, Mon-endo, Mon-endum

SUPINES.

Mon-itum, Mon-itu.

b. You will observe that this Conjugation is very like the First. By changing *a* into *e*, you change the terminations of the First Conjugation into those of the Second, in all the Tenses not formed from the Perfect, as *abam* into *ebam ;* except the Subjunctive Present: where the reverse takes place.

c. The regular termination for the Perfect is ui; as Mon-ui, Doc-ui. But there are a good many exceptions, as Jubeo, jubere, jussi, order; Deleo, delere, delevi, destroy. This last you would expect to be the regular formation; but it is very rare. The Perfect being given, all the tenses dependent on it follow of course: as Juss-i, juss-eram, juss-ero, &c. You will observe that these terminations are exactly the same as those of the First, as indeed they are in all Conjugations.

Just as Amaveram, Amavero, &c. are formed from Amavi; so are the Pluperfect, Future Perfect, &c. of every Verb in Latin formed from the Perfect by changing the final *i* into *eram, ero,* &c.

17. *Third.* *a.*

THIRD CONJUGATION.

Rego, Inf. Reg-ĕre, rule.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	Reg-o	Reg-ĭmus
2	Reg-is	Reg-itis
3	Reg-it	Reg-unt

Imperfect Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	Reg-ebam	Reg-ebamus
2	Reg-ebas	Reg-ebatis
3	Reg-ebat	Reg-ebant

Future Tense.

1	Reg-am	Reg-emus
2	Reg-es	Reg-etis
3	Reg-et	Reg-ent

Perfect Tense.

1	Rex-i	Rex-ĭmus
2	Rex-isti	Rex-istis
3	Rex-it	Rex-erunt *or* -ere

Pluperfect Tense.

1	Rex-ĕram	Rex-eramus
2	Rex-eras	Rex-eratis
3	Rex-erat	Rex-erant

Future Perfect.

1	Rex-ĕro	Rex-erimus
2	Rex-eris	Rex-eritis
3	Rex-erit	Rex-erint

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2	Reg-e, -ĭto	Reg-ĭte, -itote
3	Reg-ito	Reg-unto

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1	Reg-am	Reg-amus
2	Reg-as	Reg-atis
3	Reg-at	Reg-ant

Imperfect Tense.

1	Reg-ĕrem	Reg-eremus
2	Reg-eres	Reg-eretis
3	Reg-eret	Reg-erent

Perfect Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	Rex-ĕrim	Rex-erĭmus
2	Rex-eris	Rex-eritis
3	Rex-erit	Rex-erint

Pluperfect Tense.

1	Rex-issem	Rex-issemus
2	Rex-isses	Rex-issetis
3.	Rex-isset	Rex-issent

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, Reg-ĕre *Perfect,* Rex-isse

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Reg-ens *Future,* Rect-urus

GERUNDS.

Reg-endi, Reg-endo, Reg-endum

SUPINES.

Rect-um, Rect-u.

b. This is the least uniform and therefore most difficult of the Conjugations. You will observe that, in the other Conjugations, the Perfects are formed regularly by adding *avi, ui,* and *ivi,* to the roots; but that in this the root itself is changed. Several rules may be given for forming the Perfects, but I think you will find it easier to learn them as they come, putting down under the same head all those of similar formation. For instance, take Rexi as one head. You must consider it as formed by adding *si* to the root; as Reg-ere, Reg-si, Rec-si, Rexi. Of course under this head you would put Teg-ere, Teg-si, Tec-si, Texi, cover; and Dic-ere, Dic-si, Dixi, say. When you know the Perfect, form the tenses dependent on it by changing *i* into *eram, ero,* &c. as usual: and form the other tenses by adding to the root the same terminations as we have added to Reg, the root of Rego.

c. But we must except words ending in io; as Fugio, flee; Capio, take. The Infinitive of Capio is Capere; so the root is Cap. The Imperfect and Future, however, are not Cap-ebam, Cap-am; but Cap-iebam, Cap-iam. The Verb runs thus:

Present	Cap-io, -is, -it; -ĭmus, -ĭtis, -iunt.
Imperfect	Cap-iebam, &c.
Future	Cap-iam, &c.
Imperative	Cap-e, -ĭto; -ĭte, -iunto.
Subjunctive	Cap-iam, &c. Cap-ĕrem, &c.
Participle	Cap-iens, -ientis.

The i, in the final io, is preserved, except before i and ĕ.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

18. *Fourth.* *a.*

Audio, Inf. Aud-īre, hear.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	Aud-io	Aud-imus
2	Aud-is	Aud-itis
3	Aud-it	Aud-iunt

Imperfect Tense.

1	Aud-iebam	Aud-iebamus
2	Aud-iebas	Aud-iebatis
3	Aud-iebat	Aud-iebant

Future Tense.

1	Aud-iam	Aud-iemus
2	Aud-ies	Aud-ietis
3	Aud-iet	Aud-ient

Perfect Tense.

1	Aud-ivi	Aud-ivĭmus
2	Aud-ivisti	Aud-ivistis
3	Aud-ivit	Aud-iverunt *or* -ivere

Pluperfect Tense.

1	Aud-ivĕram	Aud-iveramus
2	Aud-iveras	Aud-iveratis
3	Aud-iverat	Aud-iverant

Future Perfect.

1	Aud-ivĕro	Aud-iverimus
2	Aud-iveris	Aud-iveritis
3	Aud-iverit	Aud-iverint

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
2	Aud-i, -ito	Aud-ite, -itote
3	Aud-ito	Aud-iunto

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1	Aud-iam	Aud-iamus
2	Aud-ias	Aud-iatis
3	Aud-iat	Aud-iant

Imperfect Tense.

1	Aud-irem	Aud-iremus
2	Aud-ires	Aud-iretis
3	Aud-iret	Aud-irent

Perfect Tense.

1	Aud-ivĕrim	Aud-iverĭmus
2	Aud-iveris	Aud-iveritis
3	Aud-iverit	Aud-iverint

Pluperfect Tense.

1	Aud-ivissem	Aud-ivissemus
2	Aud-ivisses	Aud-ivissetis
3	Aud-ivisset	Aud-ivissent

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, Aud-ire	*Perfect,* Aud-ivisse

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Aud-iens	*Future,* Aud-iturus

GERUNDS.

Aud-iendi, Aud-iendo, Aud-iendum

SUPINES.

Aud-itum, Aud-itu.

b. The Perfect in *ivi* may be shortened into *ii;* as Audĭi, Audĭeram, &c. A good many Verbs form their Perfects differently; as Vincio, Vinxi, bind. Of course in this case the Tenses dependent on the Perfect follow it; as Vinxeram, Vinxero, &c.

19. *Characteristics.* *a.* On looking over the Four Conjugations, you will observe that the Third differs from the rest. The other Three agree in this. They all have a vowel before the final *o*, though it has disappeared in the First. But Amo must be a contracted form from Amao. Look at them in this way:

Present.		*Imperfect.*		*Infinitive.*	
Uncontr.	Contracted.	Uncontr.	Contracted.	Uncontr.	Contracted.
Am-a-o,	Am-o;	Am-a-ebam,	Am-ābam;	Am a-ĕre,	Am-āre
Mon-e-o		Mon-e-ebam,	Mon-ēbam;	Mon-e-ĕre,	Mon-ēre
Aud-i-o		Aud-i-ebam,		Aud-i-ĕre,	Aud-īre

b. You would expect Audiebam to be contracted into Audībam, a form which is found in the Poets.

In the Future too, you might expect Audībo, as Amābo, Monēbo; but this form is obsolete.

c. You see then that the vowels *a, e, i* are the characteristics of, and run through, the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations respectively; and this is the reason why they are similar in form. In the Third on the other hand the final *o* is preceded by a consonant, and as there is no vowel to work upon, the root is changed. This, therefore, may be called the *Consonant* Conjugation, and the other three the *Vowel* Conjugations.

d. But you will now see there is a strong point of resemblance between all the Conjugations, which we did not observe before. Though we have made the termination of the Infinitive, in virtue of its difference, the sign of each Conjugation, yet originally it was the same in all—ĕre: as Ama-ĕre, Mone-ĕre, Audi-ĕre, Reg-ĕre. It owes its present difference to contraction.

20. *Sum.* There are several Irregular Verbs which cannot be included under any of the Conjugations. The most important of these, Sum, I am, we will now conjugate.

Sum, I am.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
1	Sum,	am	Sumus,	are
2	Es,	art	Estis,	are
3	Est,	is	Sunt,	are

Imperfect Tense.

1	Eram, was	Eramus, were
2	Eras, wast	Eratis, were
3	Erat, was	Erant, were

Future Tense.

1	Ero, shall be	Erĭmus
2	Eris	Eritis
3	Erit	Erunt

Perfect Tense.

1	Fui, was, *or* have been	Fuĭmus
2	Fuisti	Fuistis
3	Fuit	Fuerunt *or* fuere

The Pluperfect and Future Perfect follow, as usual, from the Perfect; Fueram and Fuero.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
2	Es, esto, be	Este, estote
3	Esto	Sunto

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1	Sim, may be	Simus
2	Sis	Sitis
3	Sit	Sint

Imperfect Tense.

1	Essem, fŏrem, might be	Essemus, foremus
2	Esses, fores	Essetis, foretis
3	Esset, foret	Essent, forent

The Perfect and Pluperfect follow as usual from the Perfect Indicative; Fuerim and Fuissem.

INFINITIVE.

Present,	Esse,	to be, *or* being.
Perfect,	Fuisse,	to have been.
Future,	Fore,	to be about to be.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Wanting; except in the compounds, Præ-sens, Ab-sens.
Future, Futurus, about to be.

CHAPTER V.

THE VERB CONTINUED.

1. *Voices.* *a. Passive.* Beside passing through the forms already mentioned; persons, numbers, tenses, moods; the Verb, by a further change of form, possesses the following remarkable power. If I say, Am-o, I mean that I *perform* the action of loving; that I love some object. If I say, Am-or, I mean that I *suffer* the action of loving; that I am loved by some object. So, Caius am-at, means Caius loves—some object; Caius am-atur, Caius is loved—by some object. And so on throughout the tenses. In passing through these forms, the Verb is said to have Two Voices, called Active and Passive; which may therefore be defined as:

b. Two different forms, which the Verb assumes in order to shew whether the object performs or suffers the action.

c. You cannot fail to see that the forms of the Verb, which you have already learnt, belong to the Active Voice. You have now to learn the forms of the Passive Voice, in which the Verb passes through Moods, Tenses, &c., just as in the Active.

2. *Conjugations.* *First.* We will take Amor, the Passive of Amo, as an Example of the First Conjugation.

FIRST CONJUGATION.

Indicative Mood.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
	Present Tense.	
1	Am-or, am being loved	Am-amur
2	Am-aris *or* -are	Am-amĭni
3	Am-atur	Am-antur
	Imperfect Tense.	
1	Am-abar, was being loved	Am-abamur
2	Am-abaris *or* -abare	Am-abamĭni
3	Am-abatur	Am-abantur
	Future Tense.	
1	Am-abor, shall be loved	Am-abimur
2	Am-abĕris *or* -abere	Am-abimĭni
3	Am-abitur	Am-abuntur

Perfect,	Am-atus sum,	was *or* have been loved.
Pluperfect,	Am-atus eram,	had been loved.
Future Perfect,	Am-atus ero,	shall have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
2	Am-are, -ator, be loved	Am-amĭni, -amĭnor
3	Am-ator	Am-antor

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1	Am-er, may be loved	Am-emur
2	Am-eris *or* -ere	Am-emĭni
3	Am-etur	Am-entur

Imperfect Tense.

1	Am-arer, might be loved	Am-aremur
2	Am-arēris, *or* -arere	Am-aremĭni
3	Am-aretur	Am-arentur

Perfect,	Am-atus sim,	may have been loved.
Pluperfect,	Am-atus essem,	might have been loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present,	Am-ari,	to be loved.
Perfect,	Am-atum esse,	to have been loved.
Future,	Am-atum iri,	to be about to be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Am-andus, to be loved.
Am-ātus, loved.

3. *Compounds.* *a.* The first thing you will notice about this formation is, that according to our definition of Tenses (IV. 4) there is no Perfect Tense; and therefore none of the Tenses formed from it. To supply this want, the Participle Amatus is used; which is, as you see by its form, an Adjective, just like Bonus. Joined to a Noun, it denotes that the object possesses the quality of being loved, just as Bonus denotes that it possesses the quality of being good. Like an adjective, it does not require the Verb Sum to denote the simple fact of the object being loved; but Sum is used when we wish to distinguish Time and Mode.
b. Thus Amatus, with the Present Tense Sum, denotes past time, like the *Perfect* of the Active Voice, Amavi; and means; I was *or* have been loved.

c. Amatus, with the Imperfect Eram and the Future Ero, denotes the same distinctions of past time as the *Pluperfect* Amaveram and the *Future Perfect* Amavero; meaning, I had been loved, I shall have been loved.

d. Similarly in the *Subjunctive* Mood, Amatus sim denotes, in respect of time and mode, the same as Amaverim: Amatus essem, the same as Amavissem.

e. And in the *Infinitive,* Amatum esse the same as Amavisse. The Compound, Amatum iri, is differently formed, and will be explained hereafter.

f. You see then that in Latin they borrow the names of the tenses from the Active Voice, and apply them to the Compounds in the Passive; just as in English we borrow (IV. 15) these same Latin names of tenses, and apply them to our more numerous Compounds, both in the Active and Passive Voice.

g. You will of course understand that Sum, Eram, &c., pass through Persons and Numbers, just as with an adjective.

h. And that the Participle Amatus, being an adjective, passes through Genders and Numbers, to denote the sex and number of the objects named. For example, a man speaking says, Ego sum amatus; a woman, Ego sum amata; two or more women, Nos amatæ sumus. So we should say, Puer amatus est; Tu, Augusta, amata es; Regna amata sunt. And similarly of course with the other tenses.

4. *Second.* We will now go on to the other Conjugations, taking, as Examples, the Passive Forms of our Examples for the Active Voice. You will see that the Perfect, &c., Tenses are formed just as in Amor, by combining the Participles with forms of Sum.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	Mon-eor	Mon-emur
2	Mon-eris *or* -ere	Mon-emĭni
3	Mon-etur	Mon-entur

Imperfect Tense.

1	Mon-ebar	Mon-ebamur
2	Mon-ebaris, *or* -ebare	Mon-ebamĭni
3	Mon-ebatur	Mon-ebantur

Future Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	Mon-ebor	Mon-ebĭmur
2	Mon-ebĕris, *or* -ebere	Mon-ebimĭni
3	Mon-ebitur	Mon-ebuntur

Perfect, Mon-ĭtus sum
Pluperfect, Mon-itus eram
Future Perfect, Mon-itus ero

Imperative Mood.

2	Mon-ere, -etor	Mon-emĭni, -emĭnor
3	Mon-etor	Mon-entor

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

1	Mon-ear	Mon-eamur
2	Mon-earis, *or* -eare	Mon-eamĭni
3	Mon-eatur	Mon-eantur

Imperfect Tense.

1	Mon-erer	Mon-eremur
2	Mon-ereris, *or* -erere	Mon-eremĭni
3	Mon-eretur	Mon-erentur

Perfect, Mon-ĭtus sim
Pluperfect, Mon-itus essem

Infinitive Mood.

Present, Mon-eri *Perfect,* Mon-itum esse

Participles.

Mon-endus, Mon-ĭtus.

5. *Third.*

THIRD CONJUGATION.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	Reg-or	Reg-ĭmur
2	Reg-ĕris, *or* -ere	Reg-imĭni
3	Reg-itur	Reg-untur

Imperfect Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	Reg-ebar	Reg-ebamur
2	Reg-ebaris, *or* -ebare	Reg-ebamĭni
3	Reg-ebatur	Reg-ebantur

Future Tense.

1	Reg-ar	Reg-emur
2	Reg-eris	Reg-emĭni
3	Reg-etur	Reg-entur

Perfect, Rectus sum

Pluperfect, Rectus eram

Future Perfect, Rectus ero

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2	Reg-ĕre, -ĭtor	Reg-imĭni, -imĭnor
3	Reg-itor	Reg-untor

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1	Reg-ar	Reg-amur
2	Reg-aris	Reg-amĭni
3	Reg-atur	Reg-antur

Imperfect Tense.

1	Reg-ĕrer	Reg-eremur
2	Reg-ereris	Reg-eremĭni
3	Reg-eretur	Reg-erentur

Perfect, Rectus sim.

Pluperfect, Rectus essem.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, Reg-i *Perfect,* Rectum esse.

PARTICIPLES.

Reg-endus, Rectus.

6.
Fourth.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	Aud-ior	Aud-imur
2	Aud-iris *or* -ire	Aud-imĭni
3	Aud-itur	Aud-iuntur

Imperfect Tense.

1	Aud-iebar	Aud-iebamur
2	Aud-iebaris *or* -iebare	Aud-iebamĭni
3	Aud-iebatur	Aud-iebantur

Future Tense.

1	Aud-iar	Aud-iemur
2	Aud-ieris *or* -iere	Aud-iemĭni
3	Aud-ietur	Aud-ientur

Perfect,	Aud-itus sum.
Pluperfect,	Aud-itus eram.
Future Perfect,	Aud-itus ero.

Imperative Mood.

2	Aud-ire, -itor	Aud-imĭni, -imĭnor
3	Aud-itor	Aud-iuntor

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

1	Aud-iar	Aud-iamur
2	Aud-iaris *or* -iare	Aud-iamĭni
3	Aud-iatur	Aud-iantur

Imperfect Tense.

1	Aud-irer	Aud-iremur
2	Aud-ireris *or* -irere	Aud-iremĭni
3	Aud-iretur	Aud-irentur

Perfect,	Aud-itus sim.
Pluperfect,	Aud-itus essem.

Infinitive Mood.

Present,	Aud-iri.
Perfect,	Aud-itum esse.

Participles.

Aud-iendus Aud-itus.

7. *Conjugating.* a. To conjugate a Verb in the Passive voice, add to its root the same terminations which we have added to the roots either of Amor, Moneor, Regor, or Audior; deciding which set you are to use by the termination of the Infinitive Active.

b. But if the Verb ends in *io*, and is of the Third Conjugation, retain the *i*, except before *ĕ* or *i*; just as in the Active voice (IV. 17, *c*): as,

Present,	Cap-ior, -ĕris, -ĭtur, -ĭmur, -ĭmĭni, -iuntur
Imperfect,	Cap-iebar
Future,	Cap-iar
Imperative,	Cap-ĕre
Subj. Pres.	Cap-iar
„ *Imp.*	Cap-ĕrer
Infinitive,	Cap-i
Participle,	Cap-iendus.

8. *Participle.* a. But we must except the Perfect Participle, which is not always formed regularly, and which is a most important form; as it is used with Sum to make up the Compounds.

b. In the *First* Conjugation, it is almost always formed, as Am-ātus, by adding *ātus* to the root of the Verb. There are a few exceptions, which you must learn and note down as they occur, just as you did with the Perfect Active. And you will find as a general rule, that if the Perfect Active deviates from the Regular Form, so also will the Passive Participle.

c. In the *Second* Conjugation, the Participle is generally formed, as Mon-ĭtus, by adding *ĭtus*; in the *Fourth*, as Aud-ītus, by adding *ītus* to the root. In both there are several exceptions.

d. You see, therefore, that in the First and Fourth, the Participles preserve the *characteristic* vowels *a*, *i*, as the Perfect Active does: as Am-ao, -āvi, -ātus; Aud-io, -īvi, -ītus; but that in the Second, the *e* is lost in both forms. You would expect ēvi, ētus; as Del-eo, -ēvi, -ētus; but this is a very rare formation.

e. In the *Third*, the root is changed; just as it was in the Perfect Active. So I give you no rule for forming the Participle, but leave you to make lists for yourself. Thus, if you take Rego as the heading of one list, you would put down:

Ind. Pres.	*Inf.*	*Ind. Perf.*	*Pass. Part.*
Reg-ò	Reg-ĕre	Reg si, rec-si, rexi	Rec-tus
Teg-o	Teg-ĕre	Teg-si, tec-si, texi	Tec-tus
Dic-o	Dic-ĕre	Dic-si, dixi	Dic-tus
Scrib-o	Scrib-ĕre	Scrib-si, scrip-si	Scrip-tus.

In all which verbs, the Perfect is really formed by adding *si*, and the Participle by adding *tus* to the root: the final consonant of the root being sometimes changed for convenience of sound.

f. You can now see a resemblance between the Four Conjugations. Thus:—

Ama-o	ama-ĕre	ama-vi	ama-tus
Dele-o	dele-ĕre	dele-vi	dele-tus
Audi-o	audi-ĕre	audi-vi	audi-tus
Reg-o	reg-ĕre	reg-si	reg-tus.

g. You will have observed that in all the Conjugations, the *Future* Participle and *Supines* of the Active voice are formed from this Passive Participle; as Am-o, Am-ăt-us, am-ăt-um, am-ăt-urus; Rego, Rect-us, rect-um, rect-urus.

9. *Fui, &c.* There being no exact form for the Perfect, &c. Tenses, the same result ensues which we noticed in the English Active Verb (iv. 15). The compounds may be formed in more than one way. Thus for the Perfect we find, though seldom in the best writers, Fui as well as Sum in combination with the Participle; as Amatus fui, fuisti, &c. Also, for the Pluperfect Fueram, as Amatus fueram, &c. And so on, as Amatus fuero, fuerim, forem, fuissem.

10. ***English Passive.*** *a.* The same result is conspicuous in the English Passive, where there is only one form, the Participle Loved. This form therefore has to do duty, in combination with the Auxiliary *Be*, in all the compounds which answer to the exact Tenses of the Latin Active verb: as, Amor, I am loved; or, if we wish to denote *present* time more precisely; I am being loved[1]: Auditus essem, I might, could, would, or should have been heard.

b. You have met with this form, if you remember, in the Active Voice; where it is used in combination with Have, to make up the compounds which answer to the Perfect, &c.

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[1] We occasionally find the Participle in *ing* used in a passive sense: as, How long was this city building?

Tenses: as, I have loved, I had heard, &c. But it is really a Passive form. 'I have loved a man' meant originally, 'I have (or possess) a man who possesses the quality of being loved—by me.' If translated literally into Latin, it would be, Habeo amatum hominem. This periphrasis is not used in Latin, except with a few such Participles as Cognitum, Perspectum, Comprehensum, &c. Thus it is good Latin to say, Rem cognitam habeo, I have ascertained the matter.

11. *Deponent Verbs.* There are certain verbs, in Latin, called Deponents, which are Passive in form but Active in signification: as Mir-or, admire; Fat-eor, confess; Lab-or, slip; Bland-ior, flatter. As they have no Infinitive Active, you must decide on the Conjugation by the termination of the Infinitive Passive; as Mir-āri, Fat-ēri, Lab-i, Bland-īri. They pass through all the Passive forms, and generally have beside the two Active Participles; as Mir-ans, Mir-atūrus.

12. *Irregular Verbs.* *a.* It remains to conjugate a few verbs in Latin, which cannot be included in any of the Four Conjugations.

1. Possum; an abridged form of Potis sum, I am able.
2. Volo; I am willing, I wish.
3. Nolo; for non volo; I do not wish.
4. Malo; for magis volo; I rather wish, I prefer.
5. Fero, I bear.
6. Eo, I go.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.			*Plural.*		
1	2	3	1	2	3
Possum	potes	potest	possŭmus	potestis	possunt
Vŏlo	vis	vult	volŭmus	vultis	volunt
Nŏlo	nonvis	nonvult	nolŭmus	nonvultis	nolunt
Mālo	mavis	mavult	malŭmus	mavultis	malunt
Fero	fers	fert	ferĭmus	fertis	ferunt
Eo	is	it	imus	itis	eunt.

Imperfect Tense.

Pot-eram	eras	erat	eramus	eratis	erant
Vol-ebam Nol-ebam Mal-ebam Fer-ebam	ebas	ebat	ebamus	ebatis	ebant
Ibam	ibas	ibat	ibamus	ibatis	ibant

Future Tense.

Singular. 1	2	3	*Plural.* 1	2	3
Pot-ero	eris	erit	erĭmus	eritis	erunt
Vol-am Nol-am Mal-am Fer-am	es	et	emus	etis	ent
Ibo	ibis	ibit	ibĭmus	ibitis	ibunt

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Pos-sim	sis	sit	simus	sitis	sint
Vel-im Nol-im Mal-im	is	it	imus	itis	int
Fer-am E-am	as	at	amus	atis	ant

Imperfect Tense.

Pos-sem	ses	set	semus	setis	sent
Vel-lem Nol-lem Mal-lem	les	let	lemus	letis	lent
Fer-rem I-rem	res	ret	remus	retis	rent

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Nol-i, ito		nol-ite, itote	
Fer, ferto	ferto	fer-te, tote,	ferunto
I, ito	ito	i-te, tote	eunto

INFINITIVE	PARTICIPLE	GERUND
Posse	Potens	
Velle	Volens	Volendi
Nolle	Nolens	Nolendi
Malle	Malens	Malendi
Ferre	Ferens	Ferendi
Ire	Iens, euntis	Eundi.

The Perfects are Potui, Volui, Nolui, Malui, Tuli, Ivi. They pass through their numbers and persons quite regularly, as Potu-i, potu-isti, potu-it, &c. Also the tenses formed from them are formed quite regularly; as Potu-i, Potu-eram, ero, erim, issem, isse; Volu-eram, &c.

Fero also is abridged in the Passive, as *Feror*, ferris, fertur. Imper. Ferre, fertor. Subj. Imp. Ferrer, ferrĕris, &c. c.

Edo, edĕre, eat, may be conjugated regularly; but the following abridged forms are also used. d.

Ind. Pres.	*Imperative.*	*Subj.*	*Inf.*
Es est estis	esto este estote	essem	esse
	for		
Edis edit editis	edito edite editote	ederem	edere.

Certain verbs are *Defective;* that is, do not pass through the usual forms. For instance, *Aio*, say, has only the following:— 13. *Defective Verbs.* a.

Pres. Aio, ais, ait, aiunt.
Imp. Aiebam, &c. *Perf.* Ait. *Part.* Aiens.

Some have only the *Perfect*, &c. tenses, with a Present signification: as Cœpi, I begin; Memini, I remember; Odi, I hate. Hence Cœperam is not, I had begun, but I began; Memineram, I remembered; Oderam, I hated. So Meminisse, to remember; Odisse, to hate. Memini passes through the Imperative Mood: as, Memento, mementote, remember. b.

There is a verb *Fio*, become, which has no perfect or participle. Its tenses are—Ind. Fio, Fiebam, Fiam, like Audio, &c.: Imper. Fi, fite: Subj. Fiam, like Audiam; Fiĕrem, like Regerem: Inf. Fiĕri. On the other hand, the verb Facio, make, has no Passive form, except the Part. Factus. So the two verbs fit into one another. Fio is called the Pres. Pass. of Facio; I become or am made: Factus sum, the Perf. for Fio; I became, or was made. c.

Several are Defective in Person, having only the *Third*, but pass regularly through the moods and tenses; as:— 14. *Impersonal Verbs.*

Present.	*Imp.* *Perf.*
Oportet me, it behoves me,	oport-ebat, uit, &c.
Miseret me, it moves me to pity,	miser-ebat, uit, &c.
Licet mihi, it is allowed to me,	lic-ebat, uit, &c.
Piget me, it vexes me,	pig-ebat, uit, &c.

These verbs are called Impersonal, because they are defective in person, and because even in the Third they do not agree like an ordinary verb with a Subject-word. Their construction will be explained hereafter.

CHAPTER VI.

ADVERB, PREPOSITION, CONJUNCTION, INTERJECTION.

1. *Indeclinable Words.* The Parts of Speech, which have hitherto been considered, pass, as we have seen, through different forms to express different meanings; and are therefore called Declinable[1]. The four remaining Parts of Speech, which will be considered in this Chapter, do not, with one slight exception, pass through any such forms; and are therefore said to be Indeclinable. They are the Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.

2. *Adverb.* An Adverb is a word, which, joined to a Verb or Adjective, denotes the Quality of the Quality denoted by the Verb or Adjective. See Int. 9.

Quality may be regarded in Four ways: viz. in respect of Manner, Place, Time, and Quantity.

3. *Adverbs of Manner.* *a.* Adverbs denoting Quality in respect of Manner, or, as they are briefly called, Adverbs of Manner, are for the most part formed from Adjectives.

When formed from *Adjectives* of the *First* Class, they generally end in *ē*: as, Juste (from Justus), in a just manner, justly; Pulchre (from Pulcher), in a beautiful manner, beautifully.

Sometimes they end in *o*: as Subito, suddenly; Falso, falsely (from Subitus and Falsus).

Occasionally in other ways, as Firmiter, firmly.

b. When formed from Adjectives of the *Second* Class, they generally end in *ter*: as Fortiter, bravely; Audacter, boldly (from Fortis and Audax).

Sometimes they take no termination; but use the neuter of the adjective: as Dulce, sweetly; Recens, recently.

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[1] To decline a word is to make it pass through its forms. To decline a Noun is to make it pass through its numbers and cases: an Adjective, through its numbers, cases, and genders: a Verb, through its persons, numbers, tenses, and moods. But declining a Verb is generally called conjugating.

When formed from *Participles*, they generally end in *im*: as Cæsim, cuttingly; Sensim, perceptibly. *c.*

As an Adverb denotes the Quality of a Quality, and Quality is denoted by Adjectives, you might expect Adverbs to be always formed from Adjectives. And so they would be, if there were Adjectives formed to denote every possible quality that an object might possess. But, this not being the case, Adverbs are sometimes formed from *Nouns*: as Forte, by chance; Catervatim, troop by troop; Viritim, man by man; Cœlitus, from heaven: sometimes by *Composition*; as Denuo (de novo), Profecto, Deinde, &c. Thus, to take Viritim as an instance, the Romans formed no adjective to denote that an object, as Divisio, distribution, might possess the quality of being man-by-man: but they formed an adverb to denote that an object might possess an active quality, as Distributing, in that manner: as, Cæsar prædam militibus viritim divisit; Cæsar distributed the booty to the soldiers man by man. So, Caius totum oppidum ostiatim compilavit; Caius robbed the whole town house by house. We have neither adjective nor adverb to express this idea; though we sometimes make a sort of adjective of the equivalent phrase: as, They made a house-by-house visitation. *d.*

Adverbs denoting Quality in respect of Place are briefly called Adverbs of Place. You may take, as examples, those formed from the Demonstratives, Hic, this, and Ille, that. 4. *Of Place.*

Hic, here; Hinc, hence; Huc, hither; Hac, this way.
Illic, there; Illinc, thence; Illuc, thither; Illac, that way.

Adverbs of Time are formed in a variety of ways: as Quando, when; Nunc, now; Hodie, to-day, &c. 5. *Of Time.*

As Examples of Adverbs of Quantity, take those Numeral Adverbs, of which we gave a list in the Chapter of Adjectives (II. 13); as Bis, twice; Ter, thrice, &c. Ego sum bis felix; I am twice happy. The adjective Felix denotes that I possess the quality, Happiness. The adverb *Bis* joined to it denotes the quality of the quality Happiness in respect of Quantity. The happiness is double, not single. 6. *Of Quantity.*

There are various Adverbs which do not fall readily under any of the above divisions: as Non, not; Haud, not (just the reverse); Frustra, in vain; Immo, nay. Yet they may perhaps be traced up to one of these divisions. For instance, 7. *Other Adverbs.*

Immo seems to have been originally Imo, 'in the lowest place.' It might therefore be considered an Adverb of Place.

8. *Degrees of Comparison.* a. Adverbs of Manner sometimes change their form to denote Comparison: taking for the Comparative the Neuter of the Comparative of the Adjective: and for the Superlative, changing the termination of the Superlative of the Adjective into *e*: as Pulchre, pulchrius, pulcherrime; Fortiter, fortius, fortissime. This is the exception alluded to in Clause 1.

b. Comparison is also shewn in Adverbs, as in Adjectives, by the Adverbs Magis, more, and Maxime, most: as Magis assidue, more assiduously; Maxime assidue, most assiduously. Magis and Maxime are Comparative and Superlative forms, which have no Positive. They answer to the adjectives Major, and Maximus; but there is no adverb answering to Magnus.

9. *Preposition.* A Preposition is a word placed before a Noun, to connect it with other Nouns.

a. Nouns are connected together, in order to shew how the objects named by them are connected together. Now connexion between objects is shewn in a great measure, as we have seen, by changes in the form of the Nouns which name them: that is, by the Noun passing through cases. And I suppose it would be possible for the Noun, by passing through more cases, to shew all the ways in which objects can be connected. But instead of this, certain cases are divided, as it were, into various parts, by these little indeclinable words called Prepositions being placed before them. Some are placed before the Accusative; some before the Ablative; some before both cases.

b. The following are placed before the *Ablative.*

A, ab, abs, from
Absque, without
Clam, without the knowledge of
Coram, in presence of
Cum, with
De, down from, concerning
E, ex, out of
Præ, before
Pro, for
Sine, without
Tenus, up to

c. The following are placed before the *Accusative.*

Ad, to
Adversus, against
Ante, before
Apud, at
Circa, circum, circiter, about
Cis, citra, on this side
Contra, against
Erga, towards

Extra, without
Infra, beneath
Inter, between
Intra, within
Juxta, beside
Ob, on account of
Penes, in the power of
Per, through
Pone, behind
Post, after
Præter, beyond
Prope, near to
Propter, because of
Secundum, according to
Supra, above
Trans, across
Ultra, beyond
Versus, towards.

The following are placed before both the Accusative and Ablative cases: In, in, into; Sub, subter, under; Super, over. *d.*

In English, Prepositions are used more than in Latin. For the connexion between objects, which is shewn in Latin by putting their Nouns in certain cases, is for the most part shewn in English by placing before them Prepositions. *e.*

A Conjunction is a word which joins together words and sentences. 10. *Conjunction.*

Conjunctions are divided into several classes; but we are hardly in a condition to go into them at present. Nothing in fact requires more exact acquaintance with a language than the proper use of Conjunctions. Perhaps, however, it may be well to observe the following distinction. *a.*

Some Conjunctions join together words and sentences on equal terms: as Et, and; Aut, or; Sed, but, &c. These may properly be said to *con*join. Others join together sentences only, and in such a manner that one sentence is subordinate to the other: as Ut, that; Si, if, &c. These may rather be said to *sub*join: the preposition *sub* denoting that one sentence is dependent on, or, as it were, *under* the other; while the preposition *cum* (in conjoin) merely denotes that the joined words or sentences are to be taken *together*. *b.*

An Interjection is a word or sound expressive of feeling. Of joy, as Io; of grief, as Heu; of astonishment, as O, eu, &c. 11. *Interjection.*

It is called an Interjection, because it is interjected or cast between the other words in the sentence, without affecting or being affected by them.

CHAPTER VII.

ON THE USE OF WORDS.

1. *Use of Words.* *A.* In the preceding Chapters you have learnt the *forms* of words. You are now going to see how they are *used.* But, first, what is the use of words?

B. To express what passes in the mind. (Int. 2.)

A. How can you make words do this?

B. I must put them in sentences; that is, arrange them so as to have a meaning.

2. *Sentence.* *A.* What then is a *sentence?*

B. Words arranged so as to have a meaning.

A. Let us see whether you can make a sentence yet. What classes of words, or Parts of Speech, have you learnt?

B. Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs.

A. What is a Noun? a Pronoun? a Verb?

B. A Noun is the name of an object. An object is anything whatever impressed on the mind, whether through the senses or not: that is, anything I can see, hear, smell, taste, touch, or in any way think of.

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.

A Verb is a word which, joined to a noun, denotes that the object named by it performs a certain action.

A. Now then form a sentence: as short an one as possible. It must consist of two words at the least: one, a Noun or Pronoun, to name an Object; for, if you speak, you must speak about some object: the other, a Verb, to say something about the object.

B. John runs.

3. *Parsing.* *A.* Very well. Now I want you to give an account of every word you come to. You must say what Part of Speech it is; what word it comes from; what part or form of that word it is; and why it is in such part or form. This is called *Parsing* a word. I will now shew you how to parse the two words in your sentence, giving the reason for each step.

John. A Proper Noun: a noun, because it is the *name* of an object which we can see and touch: proper, because it is a name *proper* to one object, not common to a class. It is in the

S. Number, because you name only *one* object; and in the N. Case, because the object John is spoken of as *acting* (I. 6).

Runs. As far as form goes, this might be a noun in the P. Number. But clearly it cannot be; for we have got one noun already in the sentence, and the other word we said was to be a verb. *Runs* then is a verb, denoting an action performed by the object John. It is in the Third Person; because you are speaking neither of yourself, nor of me, but of some *third* person. It is in the Singular Number; because you speak of only *one* object as running. In the Present Tense; because you mean to say that he is running *now*. In the Indicative Mood, because you wish simply to *state the fact* of his running.

4. *Plural.*

Now form another sentence and parse the words.

B. Dogs run.

Dogs. Noun; in the P. number, and N. case, because the objects are spoken of as acting.

Run. Verb; in the 3rd person, P. number, Pres. tense, Ind. mood.

5. *Personal Pronoun.*

A. How should you express that you run yourself?

B. I should say, I run.

A. Yes. Instead of naming yourself, you use the Personal Pronoun for the First Person, I. And if, when speaking to me, you wished to speak of me, you would use the Pronoun for the Second Person, Thou: or in common language, You. In Latin you might omit these Pronouns; but in English you must insert them, because the verb changes so little, that otherwise we cannot tell who it is that runs. But before going any further, I wish to give you a more convenient rule for the Nominative Case.

6. *Subject of the Sentence. Subject-word.*

If an object, we said (I. 6), is spoken of as *acting*, its noun is in the N. case. In the sentence, 'John runs,' John names an object which is spoken of as acting, and is therefore in the N. case. In the sentence, 'John lifted George,' John names an object which is spoken of as acting on another object, and is therefore in the N. case. Now, in each of these sentences, John names the object, which is called the *Subject* of the Sentence: that is, the object about which what is spoken in the sentence is spoken. And in every sentence that can be formed, whether one or more than one object is named, there is one object, about which whatever is spoken in the sentence is spoken. This object is called the *Subject* of the Sentence, and the word which names it, whether noun or pronoun, we call the *Subject-word.*

7. *Rule for the Nominative Case.* Our new rule then for the N. case will be.

If an object is spoken of as the Subject of the Sentence, its noun is in the N. case.

Or more simply,

The Subject-word is in the N. case.

8. *Difference between Object and Subject.* I think you can understand this rule now, as you know what a sentence is. But you must carefully distinguish between *Object* and *Subject.* Whatever is impressed on the mind, whether person or thing, we call an *Object,* because it is thus *laid before*[1]—the mind. In a sentence, we speak of one or more objects. But in every sentence there is one object, called the *Subject,* because it is *laid under*—the sentence; being as it were the foundation on which the sentence is built. Every subject you see therefore must be an object; but every object is not the subject.

9. *First Concord.* Let us now go back to the simple sentences we were considering, John runs, &c.

a. You will now understand that if there are only two words in a sentence, one must be the Subject-word, and that this is in the N. case. The other, in the present sentences at least, will be a Verb. These two words are connected by the following Rule, called the First Concord:

The Verb agrees with the Subject-word[2] in Number and Person.

b. That is to say: With regard to Number; if the Subject-word names one object, the Verb, as well as the Subject-word, is in the Singular; if the Subject-word names more objects than one, the Verb, as well as the Subject-word, is in the Plural Number.

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[1] *Object* comes from the Latin Objectum, a thing laid before. Laid before what? the mind; Menti being understood in Latin. *Subject* comes from Subjectum, a thing laid under. Laid under what? not the mind, but the sentence; Sententiæ (not menti) being understood in Latin.

[2] I am sorry to use this somewhat awkward compound. But it cannot be right to say, A Verb agrees with its N. case in Number and Person. One Part of Speech, as a Verb, cannot agree with the mere form of another part, as the N. case. It is clear we cannot use the expression, consistently with the view we have taken of Words and their forms. Nor can we say, the Verb agrees with its Noun; for then we lose all idea of person, which depends on the pronoun being used instead of the noun.

With regard to Person; if the Subject-word is the Pronoun for the First Person, the Verb is in the First Person; if the Subject-word is the Pronoun for the Second Person, the Verb is in the Second Person; if the Subject-word is any other pronoun, or any noun, the Verb is in the Third Person.

10. *How to deal with a Latin Sentence.*

I am now going to give you some Latin sentences, as examples of this Rule; and you must try to make them out by yourself. Pronouns you will at once recognise. The other words you must deal with in this manner. You know that there are Five Classes or Declensions of Nouns, and you have learnt an Example of each Declension. Each word you come to will have a separate root of its own; but the termination will be like the termination of one or other of the Examples you have learnt. Well then, when you come to a word, think over your Five Examples of Nouns, till you come to a form with the same termination as the word. Whatever then is the number and case of the form, that may be the number and case of the word. But it will not necessarily be so. For different cases of a noun end in the same way; and other words end in the same way as nouns. You must therefore test your word in this way. Look out in the Vocabulary[1], to see whether there is such a noun as you suppose it to come from; consider whether it makes sense in the sentence as a noun, and whether it obeys the First Concord. If it stands these tests, consider it to be a noun, and find its meaning. If not, proceed in the same way with the Four Conjugations of Verbs. Think over the Four Examples, till you come to a form with the same termination as your word. You are sure to find one; for the word, if not a noun, will be a verb. Here then are the Sentences:

11. *Subject-word and Verb. Nominative.*

Ego ambulo	Nos surgimus
Tu sedes	Vos ridetis
Medicus venit	Canes currunt

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[1] The form of the Noun given in dictionaries is the N. S. (I. 20. f.); of the Adjective, the N. S. m.; (II. 7); of the Verb, the 1st. S. Pres. Ind. (IV. 11). When we ask therefore what a noun in a sentence comes from, we mean what form does it assume in the N. S. This really is as much a form as any. As much a form of the Noun, as Durus is a form of the Adjective, or Amo of the Verb.

Translate and parse them. At the same time try to think of some English words derived from the Latin.

a. *B.* *Ego.* That I know at once. Personal Pronoun for the First Person. In the S. number and N. case. Subject-word to Ambulo.

Ambulo. That's like Domino, D. of Dominus. But it can't be a noun. It must be a verb, as Ego is the Subject-word, to say something about the Subject. Yes, it's like Amo. First person, S. number, Pres. tense, Ind. mood: agreeing with the Subject-word Ego in number and person.

b. *A.* You say truly it's like Amo. But it is also like Rego. Now you can't tell whether it is conjugated like Amo or Rego, till you know the Infinitive Mood. Look out in the Vocabulary, and you will see the termination of the Infinitive Mood set down immediately after the verb.

B. I find Ambul-o, -are; walk. Oh, then I know it's like Amo. It is a verb of the First Conjugation; and the sentence means, I walk.

c. *A.* You have not thought of any English derivatives. Perhaps you don't know them. If a man talks a good deal about himself, he often uses the word I. Hence he is called, from the Latin Ego, an Egotist; and his doing so is called Egotism. Then from Ambulo come the words Amble, Preamble, Perambulate; which you had better look out in your English Dictionary. Now go on with the next sentence, and write down the parsing as shortly as you can.

d. *B.* *Tu.* Pron. 2.; N. S.; subject-word to *sedes.*

Sedes. This too is like a noun in form; but it must be a verb, to say something about *Tu.* It's like Ames, from Amo. 2. S. pres subj. from Sedo. And I find Sed-o, -are; calm. *Tu sedes* therefore means, Thou mayest calm.

A. Under certain circumstances it might mean this. But, if you remember, we said (IV. 5) that the Subjunctive mood was used, when the acting was spoken of as *subjoined* to some other acting. Now *Sedes* is subjoined to no other verb, and therefore is not in the Subjunctive. Try again.

B. There's Mones from Moneo. *Sedes* therefore may be 2. S. pres. ind. from Sedeo: agreeing with the subject-word *Tu* in number and person. Yes, I find Sed-eo, -ēre; sit. Tu sedes therefore means, Thou sittest.

A. It does. And from Sĕdeo comes Sedentary; and Assiduous—one who sits close to his work. And Sedate from Sēdo. Go on.

B. *Medicus.* Noun; N. S.; subject-word to venit. e.

A. What Declension is it of?

B. The Second; for the G. is Medici. If it were Medicūs, it would be of the Fourth.

Venit. That's like Regit from Rego. But I find no word Veno. But there's Ven-io, -ire; come. Venit therefore is 3. S. pres. ind. from Venio, like Audit from Audio; agreeing with the subject-word Medicus in number and person.

Translation. The physician comes.

Medicine comes from Medicus.

A. Yes, and Medicus literally means *Healer*; a more sensible word perhaps than our word Physician, which means, Studier of nature; or Doctor, which means Teacher. And from Venio comes Convene, supervene, &c.

B. *Nos.* Pron. 1.; N. P.; from Ego. Subject-word to Surgimus. f.

Surgimus. Verb; 1. P. pres. ind.; from Surg-o, -ĕre, rise. Agreeing with subject-word Nos in number and person. Surge comes from it and Insurgent.

Tr. We rise.

Vos. Pron. 2.; N. P.; from Tu. Subject-word to Ridetis. g.

Ridetis. Verb; 2. P. pres. ind.; from Rid-eo, -ēre; laugh. Agreeing with Vos in number and person. English; Ridicule and Deride.

Tr. Ye laugh.

Canes. This might be a Verb in the Second Person from Cano, or Caneo; but there is no *Tu* in the sentence; and Currunt must be a verb, like Regunt. So it must be a Noun, and in the P. number, as Currunt is. Noun; N. P.; from Canis, G. can-is; dog. Subject-word to Currunt. h.

Currunt. Verb; 3. P. pres. ind.; from Curr-o, -ĕre; run. Agreeing with Canes in number and person. English; Current, Curricle, Incur, &c.

Tr. Dogs run.

A. Take another sentence.

12. ***Transitive and Intransitive verbs.***

Homo portat.

B. *Homo.* Noun; N. S.; G. homin-is; man. S.W. to Portat.

Portat. Verb; 3. S. pres. ind.; from Port-o, -are; carry. Agreeing with Homo. Eng. Porter and Transport.

Tr. The man carries.

But what does he carry?

A. Well asked. If he carries, he must carry something. 'Homo ambulat' is a perfect sentence; but 'Homo portat' is not. The man must carry some object; and therefore there must be some noun in the sentence to name it. If I say, 'The man walks,' I speak of the subject Man as performing an action which has to do only with himself. If I say, 'The man carries,' I speak of him as performing an action which has to do with some other object. Hence Carry is called a *Transitive* Verb; because the action *passes* on (transit) from the Subject to some other object. Walk is called *Intransitive,* because the action does not so *pass.* Now then, from the words you know, complete the sentence, Homo portat.

B. Homo portat canem. The man carries the dog.

13. *Noun in the A. case after Trans. verbs.*

A. Very well. Why do you put Canis in the Accusative Case?

B. Because if the man carries the dog, he *acts on* the object dog *directly.* And if an object is spoken of as *acted on directly* by another object, its Noun is in the *Accusative* Case (I. 8.)

A. In the next sentences then there will be Three words: two, the names of objects; and one, a verb. You must first fix on the word which names the subject—the Subject-word. In English, the order will guide you. The Subject-word generally comes first; then the verb; and then the word which names the object acted upon: as, Brutus killed Cæsar. But in Latin, you cannot depend on the order. You must judge of words by their form. The Subject-word, as you know, will be in the N. case. Then take the verb. The remaining word[1]

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[1] For the sake of brevity, you may use in parsing the following abbreviations:

S. W.	Word which names the Subject; *i. e.* the Subject-word.
A. D. W.	Object Acted on Directly by Subject.
A. I. W.	Acted on Indirectly by Subject.
P. W.	Possessing another object.

will be the one which names the object acted on directly by the subject, and will be, as you say, in the A. case. Then translate, and judge whether you are right by the sense.

14. *S. W. & A. D. W.* *Accusative.*

Nox tegit terram.
Filius flexit arcum.
Agros pueri arabant.
Leones pinxerunt homines.

a. *B.* *Nox.* I know of no termination in x, but it must be a Noun in the N. case, as I know Térram is in the A. And nouns of the Third Declension have, I remember, (I. 17) many different endings in the N. S. Yes, I find Nox, G. noct-is; night. It must be S. W. to Tegit. Eng. Nocturnal.

Tegit. Verb; 3. S. pres. ind.; from Teg-o, -ĕre, cover. Agreeing with S. W. Nox in number and person. Eng. *Integument.*

Terram. Noun; A. S.; from Terr-a, G. -æ; earth. Name of the object acted on directly by Nox. Eng. Terrestrial.

Tr. Night covers the earth.

A. Yes. Now test it by the sense in English. To find the Subject-word, put Who or What before the verb. What covers the earth? Night. Night therefore is the Subject-word. To find the object acted upon, put Whom or What after the verb. Night covers, What? The earth. Earth therefore is the name of the object acted on directly by the subject Night. Now go on.

b. *B.* *Filius.* Noun; N. S.; G. Fili-i; son. S. W. to Flexit. Eng. Filial.

Flexit. Verb; 3. S. pres. ind.; from Flexo. But I can't find Flexo.

A. Does the Verb end in *it* in any tense beside the present?

B. Yes in the Perfect always.

How to find Perfects.

A. Remember what we said about perfects. Perfects of the 1st C. end, regularly, in *avi;* of the 2nd in *ui;* of the 4th in *ivi.* The perfects therefore which end in this way will not

A. W. Word which names the Object Accompanying the action of Subject.
O. W. " " Addressed, or to which we say O.

These initials may seem awkward; but they will serve to keep before you the exact circumstances under which a word enters a sentence, and therefore the exact reason for the case in which it is put.

be given in the Vocabulary. When they end differently, they will be given at full length after the termination of the Infinitive. Perfects of the 3rd C. will always be given; because though they always end in *i*, like the others, they change the root of the verb in so many different ways, that it is easier to learn them by examples than by rules. Whenever therefore you are at a loss about a word, look down the verbs beginning with the same letters, and you will probably find the form you are looking for among the perfects. If it is a very difficult one, it will be put down separately. You must always learn the perfect of a verb, and put it down in parsing; for on it depend, as you know, all the tenses which denote past time, except the Imperfect. It would also be well for you to make Lists of Irregular Perfects. Now look out Flexit.

B. I find Flect-o, -ĕre, flexi; bend. Flexit therefore is 3. S. perf. ind., from Flecto. It agrees with S. W. Filius. Eng. Reflect.

Arcum. Noun; A. S.; from Arc-us, G. -ūs; bow. After Flexit; name of the object acted on directly by the subject Filius. Eng. Arc and Arch.

Tr. The son bent the bow.

c. *Nouns in er.*

Agros. Like Dominos. Noun; A. P.; from Agrus But no such word is given. I remember though that nouns of the 2nd D. end not only in *us*, but in *er*, as Liber, G. libr-i; or Puer, G. puer-i. (I. 16. *b*) Yes, it comes from Ager, G. agr-i; field. I suppose it names the object acted upon, but I can't be certain, till I know the sense.

Pueri. Noun; N. P.; from Puer, G. puer-i; boy. S. W. to Arabant. Eng. Puerile.

Arabant. Verb; 3. P. imp. ind.; from Ar-o, -are, -avi; plough. Agreeing with Pueri. Eng. Arable.

Tr. Boys were ploughing fields.

Yes. Agros names the objects acted on directly by the boys.

d. *Leones.* Noun; N. or A. P.; perhaps from Leonis, or Leones; like Clavis or Nubes. No, I don't find either; but there is Leo, G. leon-is; lion. That must be it. I cannot give the construction, till I know the sense.

Pinxerunt. Verb; 3. P. perf. ind.; from Ping-o, -ĕre, pinxi; paint.

Homines. Noun; A. or N. P.; from Homo, G. homin-is; man.

The sentence may be translated in two ways. If Leones is in the N. case, it is S. W. to Pinxerunt; and the meaning is, 'Lions painted men.' If in the A., it names the objects acted on by the men; and the meaning is, 'Men painted lions.'

A. Yes; you cannot decide from the order, nor from the form, nor with certainty from the sense. If such a sentence occurred in connexion with others, you could generally judge of its meaning from the sense of the whole passage; or, as it is called, from the *Context.*

15. *Dative.* Let us now think of another object in our minds; and, in order to mention it, add another word to our sentence. Take this.

Ego dedi librum.

B. *Ego.* As above. Subject-word to Dedi.

Dedi. It looks like a Perfect. Yes; I find Do, dare, dedi; give. It must be one of the Irregular Verbs of the 1st C. I will put it down in my List of Irregulars.

Librum. Noun; A. S.; from Liber, G. libr-i: book. After Dedi; name of the object acted on directly by the subject Ego. Eng. Library.

Tr. I gave the book.

I suppose the other word will be the name of the object to whom the book is given.

A. Yes, it will. If I give the book, I must give it to some object; and that object must be named in the sentence by some noun. Now what form will this noun take in Latin? Let us fill up the sentence in English. I gave the book to the boy. The subject *I acts on* the object Book *directly;* for if I give the book to the boy, I *move* it away from myself to him. But it acts on the object Boy *indirectly:* it does not move him, but he is *affected* by, or interested in, the action. Now what case will Puer be in?

B. The Dative. For if an object is spoken of as acted upon indirectly by another object, its Noun is in the Dative Case. (I. 9.)

16. *Difference between D. & A. case.* *A.* Yes. You see clearly the difference between the two Cases. When we speak of an object as acted on *directly,* we

mean that it is *moved* from its place, or *changed* from its present condition: and then its Noun is in the A. case. When we speak of an object as acted on *indirectly*, we mean that it is not so moved or changed; but that it is, more or less, affected by the action; that it receives, not the action itself, but the result of the action: and then its Noun is in the D. case. Take these two examples.

A. D. W. & A. I. W.

A. & D. Cases after a verb.

17. Sacerdos carmina cantat virginibus.

Arma fecit Vulcanus Achilli.

a. *B. Sacerdos.* Like Dominos. But I find no Sacerdus, and a subject-word is wanted to Cantat. Yes, it's a Noun; N. S.; G. sacerdot-is; priest. Eng. Sacerdotal.

Carmina. Noun; A. P.; from Carmen, G. carmin-is; song. After Cantat; name of the objects acted on directly by the priest.

Cantat. Verb; 3. S. pres. ind.; from Cant-o, -are, -avi; sing. Agreeing with S. W. Sacerdos. Eng. Chant, canticle.

Virginibus. Noun; D. P.; from Virgo, G. virgin-is; virgin. After Cantat; name of the objects acted on indirectly by the priest.

Tr. The priest sings songs to virgins.

A. Yes. The songs are acted on directly; for they are *moved*, or put forth from the throat of the priest. The virgins are acted on indirectly; they are not moved or changed, but they are *affected* by his singing—for they hear it.

b. *B. Arma.* Noun; A. P.; from Armum, like Regna from Regnum. But I find no Armum.

A. No. It is a word which has no S. number. You will find Arma, G. armorum; arms: just like Regnum in the Plural.

B. Fecit. Verb; 3. S. perf. ind.; from Fac-io, -ĕre, feci; make.

Vulcanus. Proper noun; N. S.; G. Vulcani.

Achilli. Proper noun; D. S.; from Achilles, G. Achill-is.

Eng. Vulcan made arms for Achilles.

Vulcanus names the subject of the sentence; Arma, the objects acted on directly; Achilli, the object acted on indirectly by the subject.

A. Yes. The arms were *changed* by the making from the raw material to the manufactured article. Achilles was not changed, but he was affected by, or interested in, the making; as they were meant for him.

18. *Dative only after Intransitive Verbs.*

Now take this English sentence. 'The rock resists the waves.' What will be the case of the Latin noun which names the waves?

B. The Accusative. Like, Homo portat puerum. The man carries the boy.

A. No. Don't you see a difference between the two verbs, though none is expressed in English? The man, who carries the boy, moves him; but the rock does not move the waves. It stands still to meet them, as they come upon it with a motion of their own. Thus, the waves are acted upon; not directly, for they are not moved[1] by the rock; but indirectly, for they are affected by it, being stopped in their course. Their noun therefore is not in the A., but in the D. case; and the sentence is 'Rupes resistit undis.' Take two more sentences.

19. *A. I. W. only.*

a. Filius paret patri.

Capiti imminet arbor.

B. Filius. As above.

Paret. Verb; 3. S. pres. ind.; from Par-eo, -ēre, -ui; obey. Agreeing with Filius.

Patri. Noun; D. S.; from Pater, G. patr-is; father. Eng. Paternal. After Paret; name of the object acted on indirectly by the son. The father is not moved or changed by the son, but receives the son's obedience.

b. *Capiti.* Noun; D. S.; from Caput, G. capit-is; head. Eng. Capital.

Imminet; Verb; 3. S. pres. ind.; from immin-eo, ēre, ui; hang over. Eng. Imminent.

Arbor. Noun; N. S.; G. arbor-is; tree. Eng. Arbour.

Tr. The tree hangs over the head.

Capiti is in the D.; the head being acted on indirectly by the tree.

20. *Those verbs only Transitive, which take the A. case.*

A. Yes. In neither sentence is the object, whose noun is in the D., moved by the subject. You will soon be able to distinguish the verbs that take the D. after them. They are so far transitive that they denote an action which has to do with some other object beside the actor. But they must be classed as Intransitive; because we regard those only as Transitive, which denote an action that passes on *directly* to an object, so as to move or change it; and which are therefore followed by a noun in the A. case. Those therefore, which are followed by a noun in the D., are Intransitive. The object is affected by, or interested in, not moved or changed by the action. It receives rather the result of the action than the action itself. Thus, in the last sentence, the head receives shade—the result of the tree hanging over it.

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[1] Of course it is possible to conceive the rock as acting directly on the waves. We might say, The rock beats back the waves; when Waves would be in the A. But the verb Resist does not imply this. It means literally, Stand counter to.

21. *P. W.* *Genitive.* Let us now think of another object, and add another word to our sentence. The man gave the book to the boy. Whose book? Who is the possessor of the book? Let us say, the girl. The sentence in English will be: The man gave the girl's book to the boy. What will be the case in Latin of the noun, which names the object Girl[1].

B. The Genitive. For if an object is spoken of as *possessing* another object, its noun is in the Genitive Case. (I. 7.)

A. Yes. The sentence therefore will be.

Homo dedit puellæ librum puero.

This is a very easy case. We shall perhaps find it difficult hereafter to say, why nouns are put in the G. case, when combined with certain verbs and adjectives; but at present, as we are merely considering how the connexion between objects is shewn by the cases of their nouns, we shall not say anything more about it.

22. *A. W.* *Ablative.* We have now got a full sentence. The man gave the girl's book to the boy. But still something more may be said about the action of the man. I might be asked, Where did he give the book? When did he give it? Why or How did he give it? What did he give it with? and so on. And I might answer, At Carthage. In the morning. Through love. In a certain manner. With his hand, &c. Now these objects, Carthage, Morning, Love, Manner, Hand, &c., are spoken of, not as in any way affected by the action of the man, but as

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[1] Understand, once for all, that by such words as 'the object Girl,' we mean, the object named by the Noun Girl.

simply *accompanying* or *subordinate* to it. The sentence is complete, and the full force of the verb can be given without them. What then will be the case of the Latin Nouns which name them?

B. The Ablative. For if an object is spoken of as *accompanying* the action of another object, its noun is in the *Ablative* case. (I. 11.)

A. Yes. There is one case more. If we insert the name of the object to whom the sentence is *addressed*, in what case will it be?

23. *O. W.* *Vocative.*

B. The Vocative. For, if an object is spoken *to*, its noun is in the Vocative case. (I. 10.)

A. Yes. Have all nouns a Vocative?

B. No. Only those Nouns of the 2nd D., which end in *us*: and these only in the S. number. In all other Nouns, the N. answers the purpose.

A. Now take these sentences.

24. *Each sentence must have a N. case. All other cases, subordinate.*

Tu, Carole, puero vulnus patris mucrone inflixisti.
Romani Horatium admiratione virtutis absolverunt.
Folia arbore decidunt auctumno.

I will shew you how to deal with them by going through the first for you. We have seen that we may have in a sentence as many as six words naming objects, each in a different case. First, then, look for the word that names the subject, the Subject-word.

In every sentence there must of course be a S. W.; and therefore a Noun in the N. case. If you merely say that an object possesses a quality or performs an action, you must name one object. That object is the subject of the sentence; and therefore the word which names it, the S. W., is in the N. case. If you say that an object performs an action, which has to do with other objects, that object is still the subject of the sentence; and therefore the word which names it, being still the S. W., is in the N. case: while the words, which name the other objects dependent on the action of the subject, are in the other cases. So the N., as it must be in a sentence, and can stand by itself, is the Main or Independent case; while the other cases, as they cannot be found in a sentence without a N., must be regarded as Dependent or Subordinate Cases.

First then, as I said, look for a word in the N. case, to stand as S. W. Then take the verb; and having found the meaning, consider whether it is one likely to take an A. or a D. case after it; or neither; or both. Then take in their order the other words which will be in one or other of the Subordinate cases. You must judge of them by their form, comparing their terminations with the terminations of the examples you have learnt.

a. *Tu.* Pron. 2; N. S.; S. W. to inflixisti.

Inflixisti. Verb; 2. S. perf. ind.; from inflig-o, -ĕre, inflixi; inflict. This then is a verb likely to take both cases after it. For I can inflict a blow, which will be acted on directly, being moved from me to the object which receives it; and I can inflict it on some object, which will be acted on indirectly, being the receiver of the blow.

Carole. Proper noun; V. S.; from Carol-us, G. -i; Charles. Name of the object addressed.

Puero. Noun; D. S.; from Puer, G. Puer-i; boy. After Inflixisti; name of the object acted on indirectly by the subject Tu.

Vulnus. Noun; A. S.; from Vulnus, G. Vulner-is; wound. After Inflixisti; name of the object acted on directly by the subject Tu, being moved from the subject Tu to the object Puer which receives it. Eng. Vulnerable.

Patris. Noun; G. S.; from Pater, father. Name of the object possessing the mucro.

Mucrone. Noun; Ab. S.; from Mucro, G. Mucron-is; dagger. Name of the object mentioned as accompanying the action of the subject; being the *instrument* with which the action was performed.

Tr. Thou, Charles, inflicted a wound on the boy with the dagger of the father.

Now try the next yourself.

b. *B. Romani.* Proper noun; N. P.; from Roman-us, G. -i; Roman. S. W. to absolverunt.

Absolverunt. Verb; 3 P. perf. ind.; from Absolv-o, -ĕre, absolvi; acquit. Agreeing with Romani. Eng. Absolve.

Horatium. Proper noun; A. S.; from Horati-us, G. -i. After Absolverunt, name of the object acted on directly by the subject Romani.

Admiratione. Noun; Ab. S.; from Admiratio, G. ation-is;

admiration. Name of the object spoken of as accompanying the action of the subject, being the *cause* for which the action was performed.

Virtutis. Noun; G. S.; from Virtus; virtue. Name of the object mentioned as possessing the object Admiration.

Tr. The Romans acquitted Horatius through admiration of his virtue.

A. You understand the G. Virtutis. If virtue excites admiration, it is conceived to possess admiration as a thing of its own.

B. *Folia.* Noun; N. P.; from Foli-um, G. -i; leaf. S. W. to Decidunt. Eng. Foliage. *c.*

Decidunt. Verb; 3. P. pres. ind.; from Decid-o, -ĕre, -i; fall. Agreeing with Folia. Eng. Deciduous, decadence.

Arbore. Noun; Ab. S.; from Arbor, G. arbor-is; tree. Name of an object mentioned as accompanying the action of the subject; being the place *from* which the action was performed.

Auctumno. Noun; Ab. S.; from Auctumn-us, G. -i; Autumn. Name of an object mentioned as accompanying the action of the subject, being the *time* at which the action was performed.

Eng. Leaves fall from a tree in Autumn.

So it seems we may have two Ablatives in one sentence.

A. Yes, and you might have more. Only a sentence would be awkward with many Ablatives in it. For further examples of the Cases see the Exercises.

25. *Adjective.* Let us now introduce another part of speech into the sentence; viz., the Adjective. What is an Adjective?

B. An Adjective is a word, which, joined to a noun, denotes that the object named by it possesses a certain quality.

26. *Second concord.* *A.* Yes. And the Adjective, being joined to the noun in use, resembles it in form. In a sentence, it follows this Rule, called the Second Concord:

The Adjective agrees with its Noun in number, gender, and case.

That is, whatever is the number, gender, and case of a noun, that is the number, gender, and case of the adjective joined to it. Since then the adjective depends entirely for its form on the noun, all we have to do when explaining why an adjective is in such and such a form, is to name the noun with which it agrees. You will find it difficult to distinguish between adjectives and nouns, owing to this resemblance of form. You can only decide by looking them out in the Vocabulary.

27. *How to deal with an Adjective.* Let us now take a sentence with Adjectives in it.

Nox grata tegit pulchram terram.

Nox, *Tegit*, *Terram*. As above (14).

Grata. As far as form goes, this might be a noun, but as Nox is a noun, Grata will be an adjective.

As in parsing a noun, you had to think over the Five Examples of Nouns; so, in parsing a word which you suppose to be an adjective, think over the Two Examples, Bonus and Dulcis, till you come to a form having the same termination as the word. Whatever then is the number, gender, and case of the form, that may be the number, gender, and case of the word. If the first such form you come to will not suit the noun in the sentence, try another. If the word will not come out right as an adjective, try it as a noun, or as a verb. For there are, as you know, many different forms ending in the same way. Take, for example, those ending in *es*: as Dulces; N. and A., P.; both masculine and feminine; from Dulcis: Nubes; N. S.; N. and A., P.; from Nubes: Ames; 2. S. pres. subj.; from Amo: Mones; 2. S. pres. ind.; from Moneo: Reges; 2. S. fut. ind. from Rego. Let us now go back to Grata.

Thinking over Bonus, you soon come to Bona, N. S. f., having the same termination as Grata. Will this do? Yes; for it will agree with the noun Nox, which is also N. S. f. Look out to see whether there is such an adjective, and you find Grat-us, G. -i; pleasant. You know therefore that you are right.

Pulchram. What is this like?

B. Bonam; A. S. f.

A. Yes, and it will agree with Terram, which is A. S. f. also. What does it come from?

B. Pulchrus; like Bonam for Bonus. But I find no such word.

A. Don't you remember we said that some adjectives of the First Class had the N. S. m. ending in *er*, as Niger, G. nigr-i? Do you find any adjective like this?

B. Yes. Pulcher, G. pulchr-i; beautiful.

A. That will do. The sentence therefore will be;

Pleasant night covers the beautiful earth.

28. *Gender.* *a.* *Gender of a noun, not a form, like number and case.*

B. There is one thing I don't quite understand. In parsing a noun, you said nothing about the gender. Yet now you speak of Nox and Terram as of the feminine gender. This is what puzzles me—the gender of a noun. I can understand what is meant by the Cases of a noun—Certain forms which the noun assumes in order to shew the circumstances in which an object is placed. And I can understand the numbers of a noun—Certain forms which the noun assumes in order to shew, whether one or more objects are spoken of. But I do not understand the gender.

A. Well, there is a difficulty about it. Strictly speaking, the noun has no gender. It has no gender in the same way that it has numbers and cases. It has no gender in the same way that a verb has persons, numbers, tenses, and moods. For it does not change its form to shew anything about gender. Let us therefore look into the matter more closely.

b. *Answers to the supposed sex of the object named.*

Nouns, we know, are the names of objects. Objects are either animate or inanimate. In English we regard animate objects as of male or female sex; inanimate objects, as of neither. The names therefore (or nouns) of animate objects are said to be of the m. or f. gender; while the names of inanimate objects are said to be of the n. gender. But the ancients were inclined to personify things. So they regarded some inanimate objects as male, some as female, some as neither. Hence in Latin, the names of inanimate objects are said to be, some of the m., some of the f, some of the n. gender.

c. *Known by the Gender of the Adjective joined to it.*

B. How can we tell what sex an object is supposed to be of, or what is the gender of its noun?

A. Chiefly by the use of the Adjective. For the Adjective really has genders; that is, certain forms which it assumes in order to shew, whether the object named by the noun, to which it is joined, is regarded as of the male or female sex, or of neither. Adjectives therefore joined to nouns shew their gender; or, which is the same thing, shew what is conceived to be the sex of the objects named by them. Lapis, for instance, names the inanimate object Stone. We cannot determine its gender from its form. But we find in Latin writers that, when an adjective is joined to it, the masculine form of the adjective is always used. We therefore know that Lapis is of the m. gender; that the object named by it was conceived to be of the male sex. On the other hand, we know that Nox and Terra are of the f. gender; that the objects named by them were conceived to be of the female sex; because we always find the feminine form of adjectives joined to them.

d. *For an Adjective really has genders, like numbers and cases.*

You now see why I did not talk about genders till we came to adjectives. And you see also, I trust, the difference between the gender of a noun and the genders of adjectives. One noun names one object (which is of one sex) and therefore can only be of *one* gender.[1] For, what sex is to the object, that gender is to the noun; a property belonging to it. To say, that a noun is of a certain gender, is merely a convenient way of saying, that the object named by it is of a certain sex. But one adjective may be applied to nouns naming objects, both of the male and female sex, and of neither. Therefore it may have *three* genders: that is, three different *forms* which it may assume, according to the sex of the object named. This use of the word gender, if we compare it with that of numbers, cases, &c., is seen to be the correct one. But though Gender, as applied to the noun, is an incorrect expression, we must still adopt it for the sake of convenience and usage.

e. *Known sometimes by its own form.*

B. Does not the noun shew at all the sex of the object?

A. Some nouns do. Not of course by a change of form, like the adjective; but it has been noticed that adjectives of a certain gender are always, or almost always, joined to nouns with a certain termination. For instance, the n. gender of

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Common gender.

[1] Some objects indeed of both sexes have only one noun in common. Hence such a noun is said to be of *Common* Gender. Thus the object named in English by Tiger, and the object named in English by Tigress, have in Latin only one noun, Tigris. But at the same time Tigris names only one object, either tiger or tigress. So Canis names both the object named in English by Dog, and the object named by Bitch. It is therefore of Common Gender. When however the object named is not a particular object of a class, either male or female, but the class itself as distinguished from some other class: then the sex of the object is not at all considered, and therefore the noun cannot be considered to be of any gender. Still the masculine gender of the adjective would generally be used with it, as one gender must be, and the m. takes precedence: as, Canis simillimus lupo: the dog is very like the wolf.

adjectives is always joined to nouns, which have the N. S. ending in *um;* and to nouns, which have the A. and V., both S. and P., the same as the N.; and which have the N. P. ending in *a*. Hence such nouns are at once known to be of the n. gender; and therefore shew by their form that the objects which they name are conceived to be of neither sex. Other remarks about the gender of nouns, gathered from observing the adjectives joined to them, are given under the Five Declensions. It is usual to lay down several rules on this subject; but I prefer you to find them out gradually for yourself, by your own observation. Meanwhile, you will find the gender of a noun denoted in your vocabulary by the letters, m. f. or n., placed after the G. case; by the letter c., if the noun is of common gender; that is, names objects of both sexes.

Now take another sentence with adjectives. 29. *Adjective.*

Fulvos leones pinxerunt callidi homines.

B. Fulvos. Adjective; A. P. m.; from Fulvus, G. -i; tawny. Agreeing with Leones in number, gender, and case.

Leones. As above (14 *d.*) But then I did not know its case. Now I know it to be in the A., because Fulvos is.

Callidi. Adjective; N. P. m.; from Callidus, G. -i; skilful. Agreeing with Homines.

Homines. I now know it is in the N. case; being S. W. to Pinxerunt.

Eng. Skilful men painted tawny lions.

A. I now want to shew you a somewhat different use of the Adjective. Take this sentence, 30. *Adjective with sum.*

Aqua calida est.

B. Aqua. Noun; N. S.; G. -æ; f.[1]; water. S. W. to Est. Eng. Aqueous, aqueduct.

Calida. Adjective; N. S. f[1]; from Calid-us, G. -i; hot. Agreeing with Aqua in number, gender, and case.

Est. Verb; 3. S. pres. ind.; from Sum, Esse, Fui; &c. Agreeing with S. W. Aqua in number and person.

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[1] Perhaps it will be well to mark the difference between the gender of a noun and of an adjective in some such way as we mark it in the text. If parsing a noun, put the initial denoting gender apart from those denoting number and case; because it is not a form as they are. If parsing an adjective, put the initials of gender number and case together, because they are all three forms. And say, A noun is *of* such a gender: an adjective is *in* such a gender.

Tr. Hot water is.

A. Yes. That is a correct translation, and in accordance with the sentences you have already had. It is not however the usual one. By *Is* you mean, I suppose, exists; as in the sentence, Deus est, God is, or exists. But we do not often wish simply to state that an object exists. The mere naming it implies that. The words would usually mean, Water is hot. Now in this there is some little difficulty[1].

31. *Adjective without sum denotes that object possesses quality.*

The adjective Calida, joined to the noun Aqua, denotes that the object named by the noun possesses a certain quality; viz. heat. No other word is necessary. If we write down a word which names an object, and place beside it another word denoting a quality, we cannot mean anything else than that the object possesses the quality. 'Aqua calida' therefore is a good Latin[2] sentence; implying, that water possesses heat. What is the use then of the other word Est?

32. *Sum without Adjective denotes that object performs action.*

Est being a verb joined to the noun Aqua denotes that the object Water performs a certain action. Now, if Est means Is in the sense of Exists, it does denote that water performs an action. For action is the very essence of existence. Whatever exists, acts. A chair is an object sufficiently inanimate. Yet it acts. Take the sentence, The chair supports the man. Here the object named by the noun Chair is spoken of as acting, Chair being the subject-word to the active verb Supports. When therefore we say that an object *is* or *exists*, we say that it acts.

33. *Sum with Adjective does not denote this.*

But if we translate the sentence, as I have translated it, Water is hot, the verb Est does not denote that the object named by Aqua performs any action. It does not denote anything more than the words, Aqua calida, denote.

34. *Sum therefore with Adjective, not verb but* Copula.

This then is the difficulty—a meaningless word. The solution seems to be this. In such sentences, Est is not really a verb. The adjective joined to the noun denotes that the object possesses the quality, but it tells nothing as to the time or mode of possessing it. To supply this want, the adjective takes the verb Sum; borrowing not its meaning, which is entirely lost, but its power of denoting, by changes of form, time and mode. Sum therefore, and its equivalent in other languages, must not in such sentences be considered a verb; but, as it is called, a *Copula*, or connecting link, between the noun and adjective; retaining the forms of the verb, but not its meaning.

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[1] Which may be passed over by the beginner. He may go on at Clause 40.

[2] 'Water hot' is not indeed a good English sentence. We are compelled by usage to insert the word Is. Yet even in English we sometimes omit it; as in the sentence, Happy the man, who, &c. Children and savages seldom use it, being content with simple juxtaposition. They say, Head hot, Brandy good.

35. *Growth of Latin Words.*

a. Noun.

We are now perhaps in a condition to understand the growth and use in Latin of the three main Parts of Speech, the Noun, Adjective, and Verb,

Let us figure to ourselves the early Romans first trying to express in words what passes in their minds. The object which we call Water is impressed on their minds through their senses. They see, touch, taste it: wishing to speak of it, they call it Aqua. That is, they employ a Noun.

b. Adjective.

They then wish to state that it possesses a certain quality; as fluidity, heat. So they say, Aqua fluida, Aqua calida. This is their first and simplest sentence. But it expresses all they want to say. The noun Aqua names the object; and the Adjective, Fluida or Calida, joined to the noun, tells something about it.

c. Verb.

They then wish to say that it possesses the quality at such and such a time, present, past, or future. Now the adjective naturally takes the form of the noun; and therefore can give no notion of time. So they vary the form of the word, and say Aqua fluit, Aqua calet. That is, they employ a Verb; a word which, by changing its form, can denote that the object possesses the quality at such and such a time.

36. *Difference between Adjective and Verb.*

They now have Two Parts of Speech, to denote that an object possesses a quality. Will they use both for every quality, as they do for fluidity and heat? If not, when will they use the Adjective, when the Verb?

There are two Points which must be clearly understood. One is, that an object, spoken of as possessing any quality whatever, *may* be conceived as Active. The other is, that the Verb is by its form more fitted than the Adjective to represent an object as Active.

a. All qualities active: some more, some less.

For the First point, we refer to the nature of the human mind, which is essentially active. An object, possessing a quality, is impressed on the active mind; and the mind communicates its activity to the object. We can readily understand that a horse is active, which is spoken of as *drawing* a cart; but we do not as readily understand that a horse is active, which is spoken of as *white*. For we are apt to think that an object is only active, when in motion or causing motion. But the mind can regard the *white* horse as active. And we speak of it as active, when we say, The white horse attracts the eye. The horse, in virtue of his whiteness, is as active when it draws the eye to itself, as it is when it draws the cart. At the same time there can be no doubt that the horse, when spoken of as drawing the cart, is represented as more manifestly active than when spoken of as white.

b. Verb fitted to denote active qualities.

For the Second point, we refer to the general idea and use of the Adjective and Verb. The Adjective, resembling the Noun in its form, conveys no more notion of activity than we necessarily convey by naming an object. But the Verb passes through what is called the Active Voice. It passes through Moods and Tenses, forms clearly fitted to denote action. Moreover in English we can use before every verb the Auxiliary verb Do; as I do love, He does sleep. And we can also substitute the verb Do for every verb; as, What is he doing? Sitting, Standing, Lying. Now we can hardly represent an object as more active, than when we speak of it as Doing.

c. Some qualities indeed denoted both by Verb and Adjective.

These two points being settled, let us now try to answer the question, When do the Romans use the Verb, when the Adjective? They say both, Aqua fluida; and, Aqua fluit: flowing being a quality more manifestly active. They say both, Aqua calida, and Aqua calet: heat being a quality less manifestly active. They also have Candidus and Candeo, Albus and Albeo; white: Niger, and Nigro; black: Ruber and Rubeo; red: all qualities less manifestly active. So far then we see no difference. But to denote a boy as walking, running, qualities more manifestly active, they say, Puer ambulat, Puer currit; having no adjective like Fluidus. To denote him as good, or just, qualities less manifestly active, they say Puer bonus, Puer justus; having no verb like Calet.

d. But generally Verbs used to denote more

This then helps us to a distinction, though perhaps not clearly marked. Whatever be the quality of the object, they *might* form and use both Adjective and Verb; but they do not *active; Adjectives less active qualities.*

always. When the quality is very manifestly active, as running, striking, &c, they for the most part form the verb only[1]. When the quality is as little active as possible, as good, just, &c., they generally form the adjective only[1]. When they have formed both; they use the adjective, when they wish simply to state that the object possesses the quality, without reference to its activity; the verb, when they wish to represent the object as prominently active.

37. *English.* *a.* *View of the Verb, and of Qualities.*

In this latter point, the English language agrees with the Latin. We take the same view as the Romans do of the adjective and verb; using the verb, when we wish to represent an object as active. But we take a different view of the qualities of objects. We are not so inclined to regard them as active. We do not regard *hot* water as active, till it begins to boil. Therefore we have no verb for Hot, like Caleo. We do not regard a *red* face as active, except it blushes. Therefore we have no verb for Red, like Rubeo.

b. *Verb not so much used in English as in Latin.*

The consequence is, that we very seldom have a verb, as well as an adjective, to denote a quality. In fact, we make much less use of the verb than the Romans do; just as we change its form much less than they do. Even when we have formed a verb, we constantly fall back on the adjective. For we use the Participle, where the Romans use only the verb. Thus we can translate Amat, Amabat, by Is loving, Was loving; Loving being clearly an adjective. So that if Grammarians had dealt only with the English language, I doubt whether they could have given to the verb the pre-eminent name which it bears; though, when naming Latin Parts of Speech, they did well to call this one Verbum, or The Word; because in one word it tells so much about the object.

38. *Verb and Adjective defined.*

It seems I think to follow from what has been said, that in both languages, and I believe in all languages, we are warranted in drawing the distinction which we have drawn between the Adjective and Verb. An Adjective, joined to a noun, denotes that an object possesses a certain quality, without reference to its activity. A Verb denotes that an object possesses a quality, with special reference to its activity. Or, which is the same thing, since the Verb by its distinct Tenses limits the possession of the quality to a moment of time, we may say; A Verb denotes that an object performs a certain action.

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[1] They *might* form an Adjective, however manifest the activity. For they have the adjective Fluidus; and when they have formed a Verb, as Ambulo, Curro, they turn it back into an adjective, by forming the Participle, as Ambulans, Currens, which is nothing but an adjective. They *might* form a Verb, however slightly manifested the activity. For they have the verbs Caleo and Rubeo; and if these, why not verbs for Bonus and Justus?

39. *Use of the Adjective.* Though the Adjective is thus in a measure superseded, as we have seen, by the Verb, the Romans still use it constantly; and in two ways.

a. As a Predicate. Firstly, to state that an object possesses a quality for which they have formed no verb; or for which they do not care to use the verb, not wishing to represent the object as prominently active: as Puer bonus, Aqua calida.

For this purpose, whenever they wish to express time, they borrow, as stated above, the verb Sum, using it merely as a Copula: as, Puer est bonus. In this sentence, Puer, as we know, is the Subject-word; Est is the Copula; and Bonus is called the Predicate, which merely means, That which is said or *predicated* about the subject.

b. As an Epithet. The second, and by far the most general and important, use is in such sentences as I gave you at first, Puer bonus currit. This sentence is really a compound of the two sentences, Puer bonus, Puer currit. But it would be very awkward to make a fresh sentence, whenever they wish to attribute a quality to an object. So instead they adopt this most convenient use, which enables them to attribute a quality to an object already mentioned in a sentence by simply introducing into the sentence the adjective which denotes the quality, and making it agree with the noun which names the object in number, gender, and case. In this sentence the Adjective is called an Epithet. Thus Bonus, which in the former sentence was the Predicate, becomes an Epithet in the latter; in which the Predicate is Currit.

40. *Copula, Predicate, and Epithet explained.* It is very probable that you have not followed the Romans in their early attempts at expressing their thoughts. If not, you must recur to the passage at some future time; and meanwhile understand that in such sentences, as, Aqua calida est, Puer est bonus, Ego sum miser, Vos estis tristes, &c., the Adjective agrees with the Subject-word in number, gender, and case:

that the form of Sum also agrees with the Subject-word in number, and person, and is in all respects parsed as a Verb; that nevertheless it is not really a Verb, but merely a Copula, or connecting link; having lost its verbal meaning, and retaining only its verbal power of expressing time and mode.

The Adjective, not the form of Sum, is in such sentences the word which tells something about the subject. It is therefore called the Predicate, which means, That which is said or predicated—of the Subject. But, when an adjective is joined to a noun without Sum; as in the sentence, Bonus Puer currit, the good boy runs; then the adjective is not the Predicate, but is called an *Epithet*. The verb, as currit, is then the Predicate.

41. *English Sentence. How to deal with it.* *a.*

You know, I trust, by this time how to set about turning a Latin sentence into English. Let us now try to turn an English sentence into Latin. A Latin sentence being given, you must judge it by the form of the words, and test it by the sense. An English sentence being given, you must judge it chiefly by what you suppose to be the sense, being guided by the order and the form. Take this sentence,

The man carries the boy. *b.*

In English, as in Latin, always fix first on the Subject-word. Here the *order* will guide you. As a general rule, the Subject-word comes first; then, the Verb; then, if there is one, the name of the object acted upon directly by the subject. Thus in the above sentence, Who carries? the man. Therefore man is the Subject-word. What does he do? Carries. Therefore Carries is the Verb. Whom does he carry? The boy. Therefore boy is the name of the object acted on directly by the subject.

42. *Form of Words.* *a.* *Cases, not Forms.*

Now let us see what the *form* tells you. The form of the nouns Man and Boy tells you nothing as to their case. Perhaps it would be as well, therefore, not to regard an English Noun as having Cases, just as we did not regard a Verb as having tenses, &c., except those marked by a distinct form (IV. 15). For firstly, the Nominative has no termination distinct from the root, as it has in Latin. Compare Form-a, form; Maur-us, moor; Canal-is, canal; Cant-us, chant; and the like; Secondly, the Dependent Case has in the Noun no form distinct from the Nominative; though it has in Pronouns, as He, Him, &c. Thirdly, even the Possessive, which has a distinct form, may also be denoted by the root with a preposition. You will therefore I think find it simpler and more accurate, not to regard an English Noun as having cases of its own, but to refer it to the standard of Latin Cases. Thus, in parsing an English sentence, do not say that a noun is in such and such a case; but mention the circumstances under which it enters the sentence. That is, say whether the object named by it is the Subject of the sentence, or is spoken of as Possessing, or as Acted upon Directly or Indirectly, or as Accompanying, or as Addressed. Then say, what will be the case of the equivalent noun in Latin.

b. Numbers are Forms. With regard to Number, however, the form does tell you something. You know that Man and Boy are in the S. number; that they each denote a single object. Therefore always mention the Number of a Noun.

c. Verb has Forms. Again, the form of the Verb Carries tells you something. You know from the sense and order that it must be a Verb; and its form tells you that it is 3. S. pres. ind. from Carry.

43. *No Article in Latin.* You will of course notice that you have in English a Part of Speech which does not exist in Latin; viz., the Article. You need not trouble yourself about it at present in translating from English into Latin. In translating from Latin into English, you must judge by the sense whether to use the Definite or the Indefinite Article, or none at all. (Int. 8.)

44. *English into Latin.* I will now parse and translate the sentence,

The man carries the boy.

The. Article Definite. None in Latin.

Man. Noun; S.; S. W. to Carries; therefore N. Looking out Man, I find *Homo*, the form I want, being N. S.

Carries. Verb; 3. S. pres. ind.; from Carry. For which I find, Port-o, -are. Therefore[1] 3. S. pres. ind. is *Portat.*

Boy. Noun; S.; name of the object acted on directly by the subject Man; therefore A. I find Puer, G. puer-i; therefore[2] A. S. is *Puerum.*

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[1] Because, since the Imp. ends in *are*, Porto is conjugated like Amo.

[2] Because, since the G. ends in *i*, Puer, is declined like Dominus.

Tr. Homo portat puerum.

To proceed. When there are more than these two nouns in a sentence, they are generally connected by Prepositions. For in English Prepositions serve to denote those circumstances, which are denoted in Latin by changes in the form of a noun. For example; The man gave a book *to* the boy; He struck me *with* his hand. But is there not one circumstance in which an object may be placed, that can be denoted by a change in the form of its noun? 45. *Prepositions in English answer to Cases in Latin.*

B. Yes. If an object is spoken of as *possessing* another, its noun takes *s* and an apostrophe. 46. *Possessive, sole formal Case.*

A. True. We can say, The *king's* son ran; denoting that the King possesses the Son. But we can also denote this by a Preposition; as, The son *of* the king ran. Now take this sentence.

The father of the girl inflicted a wound on the king with a sword. 47. *English into Latin.*

B. Father[1]. Noun; S.; S. W. to Inflicted; therefore N. *Pater,* N. S.

Of. Preposition; connecting the object Girl with the subject Father.

Girl. Noun; S.; name of the object spoken of as possessing the father; therefore G. Puella, G -æ; G. S. *Puellæ.*

Inflicted. Verb; 3. S. perf. ind.; from Inflict. Inflig-o, ĕre, flixi; 3. S. perf. ind. *Inflixit.*

Wound. Noun; S.; name of the object spoken of as acted on directly by the subject; therefore A. Vulnus, G. vulner-is, n.; A. S. *Vulnus.*

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[1] You will find at the end of this Chapter a Vocabulary of the few English words used in these Examples. But for the future no Vocabulary of English words will be given. Only those words will be used in the English Examples, which you will already have met with as translations of Latin words. You had better therefore make an English Vocabulary for yourself. Take a small note-book, and place the letters of the alphabet, one at the head of each page, in their proper order. When you meet with a Latin word, as Homo, look it out in the Latin Vocabulary, and you find Man. Set down Man on the page headed by M, thus: Man; Homo, G. homin-is; m.

If you meet with an English word in the Examples which you have not down in your Vocabulary, think whether you have a word of the same meaning, and use the Latin of that.

On. Preposition; connecting the object King with the subject Father.

King. Noun; S.; name of the object spoken of as acted on indirectly by the subject; therefore D. Rex, G. reg-is; D. S. *Regi.*

With. Preposition; connecting the object Sword with the subject Father.

Sword. Noun; S.; name of the object spoken of as accompanying the action of the subject, being the Instrument with which the action was performed; therefore Ab. Gladius, G. -i; Ab. S. *Gladio.*

Tr. Pater puellæ inflixit vulnus regi gladio.

48. Adjective. a. *A.* Very well, except in respect of order. But there is no use in dwelling on that, till your ear is familiarised with Latin sentences. We will now introduce an Adjective. This will give you no trouble, for it does not change its form in English. It has neither number, gender, nor case. As an epithet, it generally precedes the noun to which it belongs; that is, the noun which names the object, of which the Adjective denotes the quality. Take this sentence.

b. The sacred bay-tree excludes with huge boughs the glowing strokes of the summer sun.

B. *Bay-tree.* Noun; S.; S. W. to Excludes; therefore N. *Laurus,* N. S.; of the f. gender.

Sacred. Adjective; joined to Bay-tree; therefore N. S. f. Sacer, G. sacr-i; N. S. f. *Sacra.*

Excludes. Verb; 3. S. pres. ind.; from Exclude. Exclud-o, ĕre, clusi; 3. S. pres. ind. *Excludit.*

With. Preposition; connecting the object Boughs with the subject Bay-tree.

Boughs. Noun; P.; name of the objects spoken of as accompanying the action of the subject, being the instruments with which the Bay-tree excludes; therefore Ab. Ramus, G. -i. m.; Ab. P. *Ramis.*

Huge. Adjective; joined to Boughs; therefore Ab. P. m. Ingens, G. ingent-is; Ab. P. m. *Ingentibus.*

Strokes. Noun; P.; name of the objects spoken of as acted on directly by the subject; therefore A. Ict-us, G. -ūs, m.; A. P. *Ictus.*

Glowing. Adjective; joined to Strokes; therefore A. P. m. Fervid-us, G. -i; A. P. m. *Fervidos.*

Sun. Noun; S.; name of the object spoken of as possessing the objects Strokes; therefore G. Sol, G. sol-is, m.; G. S. *Solis.*

Summer. A Noun, but also used as an Adjective; joined to Sun; therefore G. S. m. Æstiv-us, G. -i; G. S. m. *Æstivi.*

Tr. Sacra laurus excludit ingentibus ramis fervidos ictus æstivi solis.

A. I will translate the next for you.

49. *Two Nouns without a Preposition after Give.*

The father has given his dearest son a very beautiful book.

Father. Noun; S.; S. W. to Has; therefore N. *Pater,* N. S.

Has. Verb; 3. S. pres. ind.; from Have. Used as an Auxiliary with Participle Given to make up a compound for the Perf. ind. of Give. Agreeing with S. W. Father.

Given. Participle; from Give. Used with Aux. Have to make up a compound for the perf. ind. of Give. Do, dare, dedi: 3. S. perf. ind. *Dedit.*

His. You need not translate this word. The Possessive is not used in Latin, when there is no doubt who it is that possesses the object.

Son. Here are two nouns, Son and Book, coming after the verb; without a preposition to connect either with the S. W. But there can be no doubt as to the circumstances under which the objects named by them enter the sentence. After a verb like Give, which takes two Cases, one of them must be the A. D. W.; the other the A. I. W. And there can be no doubt which is which. The father does not give his Son to a book, but a book to his Son. This is clear from the sense; though the Preposition To is omitted before Son. And it generally is omitted after such verbs as Give, Deal, &c.: the distinction between the A. D. W. and the A. I. W. being shewn by putting the A. I. W. first: as, I dealt *him* a blow. Send *me* a letter. Parse therefore.

Son. Noun; S.; name of the object spoken of as acted on *indirectly* by the Subject; therefore D. Fili-us, G. -i, m.; D. S. *Filio.*

Dearest. Superlative form of adjective Dear; joined to

Son; therefore D. S. m. Car-us G. -i; Sup. Car-issimus; D. S. m. *Carissimo.*

Book. Noun; S.; name of the object spoken of as acted on *directly* by the Subject; therefore A. Liber, G. libr-i, m.; A. S. *Librum.*

Very. Adverb; joined to the adjective Beautiful, and denoting that the Quality, denoted by Beautiful, is possessed in a great degree. The two together answer to a Superlative.

Beautiful. Adjective; joined to Book; therefore A. S. m. Taken with very, answers to the superlative. Pulcher, G. pulchr-i; Sup. Pulcherrimus; A. S. m. *Pulcherrimum.*

Tr. Pater carissimo filio librum pulcherrimum dedit.

English Vocabulary.

Bay-tree; laur-us, -i; f.
Beautiful; pulcher, pulchr-i.
Book; Liber, libr-i; m.
Bough; ram-us, -i; m.
Boy; puer, puer-i; m.
Carry; port-o, -are.
Dear; car-us, -i.
Exclude; exclud-o, -ĕre, clusi, clusus.
Father; pater, patr-is; m.
Girl; puell-a, -æ; f.
Give; do, dare, dedi, datus.
Glowing; fervid-us, -i.
Huge; ingens, ingent-is.
Inflict; inflig-o, -ĕre, flixi, flictus.
King; rex, reg-is; m.
Man; homo, homin-is; m.
Sacred; sacer, sacr-i.
Son; fili-us, -i; m.
Strokes; ict-us, -ūs; m.
Summer, adj.; æstiv-us, -i.
Sun; sol, sol-is; m.
Sword; gladi-us, -i; m.
Wound; vulnus, vulner-is; n.

CHAPTER VIII.

ON THE USE OF WORDS.

1. *Four Forms necessary in parsing a Verb.*

A. We will now form some more sentences: and, as you are supposed to have now learnt all the Parts of Speech, we may introduce into them any words we please. You must translate and parse as before. Only in parsing a verb, there is one form that you did not give before, which you must give now. What is that?

B. The Perfect Passive Participle.

A. What then are the Four forms of the verb which you must give? And why must you give them?

B. I must give the 1. S. pres. ind. act.: because that is the form which I find in the vocabulary; and which I must use, when I want simply to name the verb. I must give the inf. mood: because that tells me how I am to conjugate the verb. I must give the perf. act.: because, though I know from the Inf. what it is when formed regularly, there are many verbs with irregular perfects; and on it depend the plup. &c. tenses. And I must give the perf. pass. part.: because it also is often formed irregularly; and on it depend all the compounds in the passive voice.

2. *Form of Verb, when joined to more Subject-words than one.*

A. Very well. Now ask any questions you please about the construction of sentences.

B. I hardly know where to begin. But, as we began before with the Subject-word, I will begin with that now. I know how to make a verb agree with one Subject-word: but what am I to do with two Subject-words? For instance; if I want to say, I and you love Charles, what person and number would Amo be in?

A. Wait a moment. Don't say, I and you. In English, courtesy requires that the speaker name himself last. So we should say, You and I love Charles; Charles and I love you; Love being in the P. number. But in Latin, the first person is named first, as being more worthy than the second: and the second next, as being more worthy than the third. So when more subjects than one are spoken of, the verb is (generally) in the P. number, because it tells something about more than one subject; and it agrees in Person with the most worthy person. Thus:

Ego et tu amamus Carolum.

Ego et Carolus amamus te.

Tu et Carolus amatis me.

3. *Form of Adjective, when joined to more Nouns than one.* *a.* If an adjective is joined to more nouns (or pronouns) than one, it also is in the P. number; and agrees in gender with the noun of the worthier gender: the masculine being accounted worthier than the feminine, and the feminine than the neuter: as,

Ego et tu beati sumus.

Rex et regina beati sunt.

But if the nouns name inanimate objects, the adjective is generally in the neuter gender: as,

Arcus et calami bona sunt.

Virtus et vitium inter se contraria sunt.

b. *Adjective without Noun.* *B.* How is this? What does Contraria agree with?

A. As the Latin adjective marks gender clearly, it is not necessary, or usual, to insert the noun, when the object to be named is man, woman, or thing taken generally, e. g., Cæcus non videt, A blind man does not see. Boni amant virtutem, Good men love virtue. Speramus meliora, We hope for better things. So, in the above, Contraria means contrary things—objects shewn to be things, not persons, by the gender of the adjective. Virtue and vice are things contrary one to another.

4. *Words coupled.* What part of speech is Et?

B. A Conjunction, because it joins together words.

a. *By Et.* *A.* Yes; and Et is sometimes put before each word: as,

b. *By Et, Et.* Et ego et tu beati sumus.

This we should translate by, Both you and I are happy. But the two Ets are used more frequently in Latin, than Both is in English.

c. *By Que.* There is also a Conjunction Que, used thus:

Balbus Caiusque, Balbus and Caius.

Balbusque et Caius, Both Balbus and Caius.

Observe that Que is fastened on at the end to the word it joins. But Que is never used after Et. Et Balbus Caiusque is not good Latin.

d. By Atque.

There is another Conjunction, Atque, And also; or its abridged form, Ac: used thus,

Balbus atque Caius. Balbus and Caius too.

e.

Summing up these different ways of combining words, we have:

Terra et mari. Terra marique. By land and sea.

Et terra et mari. Terraque et mari. Both by land and sea.

Terra atque mari. Terra ac mari. By land and sea too.

Ac is not used before a vowel.

5. *Infinitive Mood.*

a. To be regarded as a Noun.

Before going on with the noun, I shall now speak of the Infinitive mood; because I wish you to regard that as a noun. Take the Latin sentence:

Dulce est dormire.

Looking at the form of the sentence, and remembering the two Concords, you see that a noun is wanted for Dulce and Est to agree with. It must be N., as S. W. to Est: S., because Est and Dulce are S.: n., because Dulce is n. To complete the sentence therefore, the Inf. Dormire ought to be a n. noun, N. S. Now, what is the Infinitive?

b. For it names an action.

B. The Inf. is that form of the verb, which names the action denoted by the verb, without limiting it as to person or number.

A. And what is a noun?

B. A noun is the name of an object.

A. Well then; if the Inf. is the name of an action, and a noun is the name of an object, the Inf. is a noun, if an action is an object. What is an object?

B. Anything impressed on the mind directly through the senses, or indirectly.

c. And an action is an object.

A. Well, an action, as Sleeping for instance, is impressed on the mind indirectly through the senses. Not directly, for no sense perceives Sleeping: but the eye sees Sleeping people; and hence the mind conceives the action of Sleeping as a distinct object. We can think of Sleeping. An action therefore is an object[1]: and therefore the Inf., which names an action, must be regarded as a noun. It is of the n. gender: for we always find adjectives of the n. gender (VII. 28. *e*) agreeing with it. It is only used in the S. number: for we never find a verb or adjective in the P. agreeing with it. And for Case, it depends on its position in the sentence, like an ordinary noun.

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[1] A good way of testing an object is to ask, Can it be spoken about? That which is expressed by the words Sleeps, Will Sleep, Beautiful, Loudly, &c., cannot be spoken about and therefore is no object. You cannot say, Will sleep is pleasant. But that which is expressed by such words as Sleeping, Beauty, Loudness, &c., can

Parsing then Dormire in the above sentence as a noun; it is N., as S. W. to Est. Est agrees with it in number and person; Dulce in gender, number, and case. Translate the sentence.

d. *Inf. in English.*

B. It is sweet to sleep?

A. That is the usual translation: but I want a more literal one. There is no It in the Latin.

B. To sleep is sweet.

A. Yes; or, Sleeping is sweet. Sleeping[1] is the form, To sleep the compound, for the Infinitive. The same construction holds in English. Sleeping, or To sleep, is a noun, and enters the sentence as S. W. to Is. Is and Sweet agree with it.

e. *Use of It before Inf. in English.*

B. But what is the construction of the ordinary sentence, It is sweet to sleep.

A. That is more difficult. For what can *It* be? *It* is the neuter pronoun for the third person: that is, it is a word used instead of some neuter noun. But what noun? None has been used. Perhaps however the sentence may have arisen in this way. To sleep—it is sweet. The object is named, To sleep. Then instead of this neuter noun, To sleep, being the Subject-

be spoken about, and therefore is an object. You san say, Sleeping is pleasant. You must remember that this is a test of an object, not a definition. It would be merely going backwards and forwards to say; A noun is the name of an object; An object is anything that can be spoken about or named. But it will always serve you as a test.

[1] To sleep, To walk, is the common English Inf., but Sleeping, Walking, must also be considered as such, and must not be confused with the Pres. Part., which is formed in the same way. In the sentences, The sleeping child wakes, That man is a walking dictionary, Sleeping and Walking are participles, agreeing as adjectives with the nouns Child and Dictionary. But in such sentences as, Sleeping is sweet; Walking is not so pleasant as Riding; What do you purpose Doing? the words Sleeping, Walking, Riding, Doing, are in the Inf. mood: for they simply name the fact of the action being performed without limiting it as to person (IV. 5. f.). And this form of the Inf. perhaps you would do well to use, though it is not so common as the compound (as To sleep, To walk). But it agrees better with the Latin form, and will help you better to see the construction of the sentence.

word, it is left without construction; and the pronoun *It* is used in its place, and becomes the S. W. of the sentence, Is and Sweet agreeing with it.

Thus in the sentence

To see the face of God, this makes the joy of heaven.

The Inf. To see is left without construction, This becoming the Subject-word. And in French the pronoun is inserted in Questions: as, Mon frère dort-il? Is my brother asleep?

f. This then we may suppose to be the origin of the sentence, and that the It has got transposed. But you must not expect always to be able to find a strict grammatical construction for common English sentences, as they stand; though you always must for Latin sentences. Therefore, before translating an English sentence into Latin, you must turn it about till you make it grammatical. That is, you must find the Subject-word and the verb, and clearly ascertain how all the other words are connected with the Subject-word and with one another. It would be a bad mistake to translate, It is sweet to sleep, by, Id est dulce dormire: not so much because the sentence is not Latin, but because you would be proceeding illogically; that is, without being able to give a reason for everything you do. In Greek, the same word Logos (notice it in Illogical) means both Word and Reason; and the two go closely together. You cannot take a step in Grammar, the science of words, without giving the reason why.

6 *Infinitive as S. W.*

Now take these sentences.

Humanum est errare.

Dulce et decorum est pro patriâ mori.

Magnum est non timere mortem.

Filii est parere patri.

a. *B. Humanum.* Adj.; N. S. n.; from Human-us, G. -i; human. Agreeing with Errare.

Est. Copula; 3. S. pres. ind. from Sum, esse, fui. Agreeing with Errare in number and person.

Errare. Verb; Inf. Pres.; from Erro, err. S. W. to Est, and noun to the adj. Humanum.

Tr. Erring is human. Or, It is natural to man to err.

b. *Dulce* and *Decorum.* Adjectives, agreeing with Mori.

Mori. Verb; Inf. Pres. Pass.; from Morior, mortuus. But I find no Active Morio: and Morior, though Passive in form, has an Active signification. Therefore it is a Deponent Verb (v. 11); signifying Die; S. W. to the Copula Est, and Noun to the Adjectives Dulce and Decorum.

Tr. Dying for one's country is sweet and glorious.

A. Yes, or you may say, It is a glorious *thing* to die for one's country. And in the 3rd sentence, It is a great *thing* not to fear death. So, when turning English into Latin, you must not translate the word *thing,* but merely put the adjective in the n. gender; as Decorum, Magnum.

c.
The Inf., though used as a Noun, keeps its powers as a Verb.

From the 3rd sentence too you see that the Infinitive, though used as a noun, does not lose its powers as a verb. *Timere* is S. W. to Est; and takes after it Mortem in the A. So in the fourth sentence, *Parere,* as usual, takes the D. Why do you think Filii is in the G. case?

B. Because the son is possessor of the father.

d.
Inf. names an object possessed.

A. No. Because the son is possessor of obeying. Obeying a father is a son's. This is the exact translation of the Latin sentence. In English, we are obliged to put in some such word as Duty or Part. We should say, It is the duty of a son to obey his father. But the Latin is the more logical sentence. The son, as son, possesses the object named by Parere as a property peculiarly belonging to him; and therefore his noun Filius is in the G. case. The construction is just the same as in the sentence: Hic liber est pueri, This book is the boy's.

B. In the sentences you have given me the Infinitive is in the N. case. Is it declinable?

A. No, it must be regarded as Indeclinable. It does not change its form, as a noun does, in passing through Cases. We will now go on with the other Cases; and I dare say we shall meet the Infinitive again.

7.
Place to which. Accusative.

Turn this sentence into Latin:

Caius sent messengers to Rome.

B. Caius misit nuntios Romæ.

A. Why do you put Rome in the D. Case?

B. Because in the Exercises (VII. 6) I had such a sentence. Mittam Carthagini nuntios; I will send messengers to Carthage.

A. So you had. But do not be satisfied with merely giving an example or precedent. Give the reason both for Nuntios and Romæ.

B. The messengers are conceived as acted on directly by Caius, being moved from one place to another; and therefore their noun is in the A. Rome is conceived as acted on indirectly. It is not moved or changed by the sending: but it is influenced by or concerned in it. Therefore its noun is in the D.

A. Well. I think you have taken a natural view of the matter. You might expect that the place, to which one goes or sends, would be conceived as acted on indirectly. And sometimes it is conceived so; as it must have been by the poet Horace, when he wrote the sentence of which I have given you the part—Mittam Carthagini nuntios. But you, remember, must not conceive it so. You must always obey this Rule;

The Place, *to* which motion is directed, has its noun in the A. case.

Now translate, Caius sent, &c.

B. Caius misit nuntios Romam.

A. And this: I will go to Carthage.

B. Ibo Carthaginem.

A. Yes. The place, to which one goes or sends, or to which motion is in any way directed, must be conceived as so acted upon, that it is changed by the act. Cæsar Romam rediit; Cæsar returned to Rome. Rome is conceived as changed in condition by having Cæsar returned to it; and therefore its noun is in the A. case.

8. *Place from which.* Ablative.

Again. Translate—

Caius sent messengers from Rome.

Horace fled from Philippi.

B. Caius misit nuntios Româ.

Horatius fugit Philippis.

A. Yes; and why?

B. Because the Place, *from* which motion is directed, is mentioned as accompanying or telling something more about the motion, and therefore has its Noun in the Ab. case.

9. *Place at which.* *a.* Ablative.

A. Again. Caius lived at Rome.

B. Caius vixit Româ. Because here also Rome is mentioned as an accompanying object.

A. Well; as a general Rule, The Place, *at* which an action is mentioned as performed, has its noun in the Ablative Case.

But you must be sure to remember this Exception.

b. *Exception.* Genitive. If the Noun is of the 1st or 2nd Declension, and S. Number, it is put in the Genitive Case.

So that, though it is right to say,

Caius vixit Carthagine; mortuus est Athenis: it is wrong to say,

Caius vixit Româ; mortuus est Tarento.

What ought you to say?

B. Caius vixit Romæ; mortuus est Tarenti.

But what is the reason for the difference?

A. Perhaps this may account for it. The Greek noun has no Ab. case: the G. and D. doing its work. The Greeks then, conceiving that the place at which an action is performed possesses for the time the performer, put its noun in the G. case. And the Latin noun of the 1st or 2nd D., being similar in form to the Greek noun of the same declension, retains the Greek use in this respect. But whether this be so or not, be sure to remember the Rule and the Exception, as illustrated by the following examples:

Caius vixit Romæ.
Cicero natus est Arpini.
Horatius Athenis philosophiæ studuit.
Brutus et Cassius victi sunt Philippis.
Hannibal natus est Carthagine.
Romæ Tibur amo ventosus, Tibure Romam.
Crœsus regnavit Sardibus.

Which sentences translate and parse.

10. *Time, at which: Ablative.* During *which: Accusative.* Let us now speak of Time. Translate

The boy died in the sixth year of his age.
The boy lived six years.

B. Puer sexto ætatis anno mortuus est.
Puer sex annis vixit.

A. You use, I suppose, the Ab. in each sentence, because you conceive that both the Time *at* which, and the Time *during* which, an action is performed, are mentioned as accompanying objects. The Time *at* which, &c., is so conceived, and therefore its noun is put in the Ab. case. And so is the Time *during* which sometimes: its noun being found in the Ab. But the Romans generally took a deeper view of the time *during* which an action is performed, than to regard it merely as an accompanying object. They regarded it as acted upon directly by the performer, as changed by the action; and therefore they put its noun in the A. case. Augustus quadraginta annos præfuit Romæ. Augustus ruled over Rome for forty years. Those forty years were so acted upon by Augustus, that they have taken his name, and are called the Augustan Age. Tigellius noctes vigilabat, diem totum dormiebat. Tigellius would keep awake, or, as we should say, would sit up of nights, and sleep all day. Observe how precise and exact the Latin language is, through having formal cases; how vague and careless ours becomes, through not having them. We express duration of time by the prepositions For, Of, During, Through; or by none at all. The Romans conceiving the time as acted upon, put its noun in the A. case, without any preposition. In the above sentence, the nights are conceived as rendered wakeful; the days as rendered sleepy, by the actions of Tigellius: hence the case of their nouns. You can hardly fail to read the lesson which this use of the Accusative suggests. The years you live, during which you work, or during which you are idle, are years won, or years lost; years changed from good to better, or from bad to worse.

11. *Summary of Place and Time.*

Putting together what has been said about Place and Time, we have

Place	*at* which.	Answering Question	Where? Ab. & Gen.
	from		Whence? Ablative.
	to		Whither? Accusative.
Time	*at*		When? Ablative.
	during		How long? Acc.

12. *Two Accusatives, after such Verbs, as Teach, Ask, &c.*

To go on with the Accusative. It is good Latin to say
Magister puerum docuit. The master taught the boy.
Magister musicam docuit. The master taught music.
Also it is good Latin to combine the two, and say
Magister puerum musicam docuit.
The master taught the boy music.

The Boy is acted on directly by the master, being changed from ignorance to knowledge. Music is acted on directly by the master, being as it were moved from the master to the boy. Hence both nouns, Puerum and Musicam, are in the A. case. This is an instance of what is called the Double Accusative; the Accusative of the Person, and the Accusative of the Thing. Whenever a verb expresses an action, which can be conceived as operating directly on two objects, one generally a Person, and the other a Thing, you may expect to find it followed in Latin by two nouns, both in the Accusative[1] case. Take the following Examples:

Pacem te poscimus omnes.

Caius me rogavit sententiam.

Dedocebo te istos[2] mores.

Hæc patrem meum celavi.

13. *Infinitive as A. D. W. One of the Two Accusatives after such Verbs, as Teach, &c.* *a.*

Having translated and parsed the above, turn the following into Latin:

The master taught the boy to sing.

B. Magister docuit puerum canere.

A. Yes. Whom did the master teach? The boy. What did he teach? Singing. You have therefore Puerum and Canere in the A. after Docuit, just as you had Puerum and Musicam in the former sentence. You see then that a verb in the Infinitive is used as a noun in the A., as well as in the N. case: as in the sentence,

Reddes dulce loqui, reddes ridere decorum.

You must give me back my pleasant talk, my graceful laugh.

Where Loqui and Ridere are used exactly as neuter nouns in the A. case after Reddes.

b. *Order.*

Again, Aristippus servos projicere aurum jussit.

Aristippus ordered his slaves to throw away the gold.

Whom did he order? His slaves. What did he order? Throwing away. Therefore both Servos and Projicere are in the A. after Jussit.

14. *One of two Accusatives after such Verbs, as Perceive, Know, &c.* *a.*

Take the following:

1. Pater audit puerum dormire. The father hears that the boy sleeps.

2. Sentimus calere ignem. We feel that fire is hot.

3. Credimus Jovem regnare. We believe that Jupiter reigns.

4. Scio te servire. I know that you are a slave.

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[1] But by no means always. The noun which names either Person or Thing is frequently connected with the Subject-word by a Preposition.

[2] Observe this, the proper use of Iste; which is compounded of Is, that, and Te; and means, That with you, That of yours. I will unteach you those manners of yours.

5. Dicunt puerum ægrotare. They say that the boy is ill.

6. Gaudeo te bene valere. I am glad that you are well.

If you look carefully at the above sentences, you will I think understand the following Rule for turning an English sentence into Latin.

The way to turn an English sentence when joined to such Verbs by That.

When an English sentence is joined to a verb by the Conjunction That, put the Subject-word of the English sentence in the Accusative Case, and the Verb in the Infinitive Mood; provided that you cannot replace the Conjunction That by the phrase, In order that.

b. (*in English, two sentences: in Latin, one.*)

Take the sentence (1) in English. The boy sleeps, is a perfect sentence. Boy is the Subject-word; Sleeps a verb in the Ind. mood. This sentence is joined to the verb Hear by the Conjunction That. So that in English you have two simple sentences, The father hears, and, The boy sleeps, combined into one compound sentence; The father hears that the boy sleeps. But in Latin you must put the S. W. Boy into the A. case, as Puerum; and the Ind. verb Sleeps into the Inf. mood, as Dormire. So that you have still only one simple sentence. Pater is the S. W.; Audit the verb; Puerum and Dormire two Accusatives after Audit. The father hears of—Whom? The boy. Of what? Sleeping. Therefore both Puerum and Dormire, as they name objects acted on directly by the Father, are in the A. case.

c.

So in sentence (2). The two simple sentences, We feel, and Fire is hot, are in English combined into the compound sentence—We feel that fire is hot. But in Latin the sentence is still simple. Nos (understood) is the S. W.; Sentimus, the verb; Ignem and Calere two Accusatives after Sentimus.

d. But not when That *can be replaced by* In order that.

If you apply the test given in the Rule to the Examples, you will see that in none can you put In order that instead of That. You cannot say, The father hears in order that the boy sleeps. But in the sentence, I came that I might see what was going on, you can put In order that instead of That. You can say, I came in order that I, &c. The difference is obvious. In the former sentence, the conjunction That introduces a fact, Sleeping; which is put in the Infinitive: for the Infinitive simply names the fact of an action being performed. In the latter it introduces a result, which in Latin you must not put in the Infinitive.

e. Of the two Accusatives the Inf. names an action. You understand then that, when you have in Latin an Accusative and an Infinitive after a verb, you must regard them as two Accusatives. You will not always be able to preserve the distinction of Person and Thing, usually given for the Double Accusative. The noun will name an object, either Person or Thing. The Infinitive will name an Action, which is an object impressed on the mind indirectly through the senses (5).

f. Sort of Verbs that take two *Accusatives; and that take* one. You see what sort of verbs take this Accusative and Infinitive, or two Accusatives. Verbs denoting an action, which can be conceived as operating on an action, take the Inf., or *one* A., after them: as Cœpi, begin; Possum, am able, &c. Verbs denoting an action which can be conceived as operating on an action, and also on some other object, take the A. and Inf., or *two* A.s, after them. Verbs, for instance, which denote any perception of body or mind, as Hear, Feel, Think, Know, &c.; verbs which declare anything, as Say, Answer, &c.; and so on. Some of these we can use in English, as in Latin, with the A. and Inf. We can say, We feel fire to be hot; I know you to be a slave. They pronounce the boy to be ill. But the more usual construction is to form a compound sentence with the conjunction That.

15. *When the Infinitive ought to be in the* Perfect *Tense.* Again. The Infinitive in the Perfect Tense may also be regarded as a noun in the A. case.

Credimus Jovem regnavisse. We believe that Jupiter reigned.

Dicunt puerum dormivisse. They say that the boy slept.

We believe in—Whom? Jupiter. In what? His having reigned. Therefore Regnavisse is in the A. after Credimus, just like Regnare, &c., in the former sentences. It is in the perfect tense, because the time of his reigning is past at the time of our believing. We believe Jupiter to have reigned (once, but now not to reign).

16. *When in the* Present. *Different construction in English.* How should you turn into Latin,

They said that the boy slept?

B. Dixerunt puerum dormivisse.

A. No. The English sentence means that he was asleep at the time when they said. Split up the compound into the two simple sentences of which it is composed, and you have, They said: The boy sleeps. They said at some past time.

Therefore Dixerunt is in the perfect tense. But the time of his sleeping is the same as the time of their saying. It is time present when they speak. Therefore Dormire is in the present tense. Thus you may say in English, They pronounced the boy to be asleep: where the Pres. tense of the Inf. is apparent. The compound sentence however is usually employed; They said that the boy was asleep (or slept); in which the verb after That is attracted into a past tense by the verb before That. But in Latin the Inf. must be in the tense actually employed by the speaker; so that the sentence will be,

Dixerunt puerum dormire.

And your sentence with dormivisse means, They said that the boy had slept (at a time past when they spoke). They pronounced the boy to have been asleep (at some past time, but then to be awake).

17. *When in the Future. But the Fut. Inf. is a Compound; and its parts should be treated separately.*

Once more.

Spero puerum venturum esse.

I hope that the boy will come.

Spero puellas venturas esse.

I hope that the girls will come.

Parse Venturum.

a. *B.* *Venturum.* A. S. m.; from Venturus; Fut. Act. Part., from Ven·io, ire, veni, ventum, come. Agreeing with Puerum in gender, number, and case.

A. Quite right. Venturum and Esse are generally taken together, and called the Future Infinitive. So under Amo, Moneo, &c., Amaturum esse, Moniturum esse, &c., are set down as the Future Infinitives of those verbs. But I omitted them, because I wished the Active Voice of the Latin verb to present a perfect example of Formal Inflexion; that is, of a verb passing through Forms only, and not compelled to have recourse to Compounds, in order to express different meanings. Amaturum esse is a Compound or Periphrasis, not a Form, and is no more the Fut. Inf. of Amo than Amaturos or Amaturas esse.

b. Our best plan therefore in parsing such a Latin sentence as the above will be to take each word separately: for instance, to regard Puerum (or Puellas) and Esse as Accusatives after Spero (as in 14) and Venturum (or Venturas) as a Participle, agreeing with the A. noun in gender, number, and case; being joined to it by the Copula Esse.

c. And, vice versa; when you have an English sentence, containing a verb in a future tense, joined on to another sentence by the Conjunction That, turn it into Latin thus. Put, as usual, the S. W. in the A. case; and for the verb, use the Compound answering to the Fut. Inf.; that is, the Pres. Inf. of Sum, and the Fut. Part. of the Verb, which must agree with the A. noun in gender, number, and case.

d. For example:

I hope that the girls will live long.
Spero puellas victuras esse diu.
You know that your son will die soon.
Scis filium mox esse moriturum.

If you express yourself by a simple English sentence, instead of a compound, and say, You know your son to be soon about to die, you will see more clearly the Latin construction.

18. *The way to translate the English Present Infinitive, when denoting a future action and not a purpose or result.*

In these English compound sentences, the Subject-words in the two simple sentences are different: as I and Girls, You and Son. But the Latin construction is just the same when the Subject-words are identical: as

I hope that I shall live long.
Spero me victurum esse diu.
You hope that you will live long.
Speras te victurum esse diu.

Here, in each English simple sentence, there is the same S. W.: I and I, You and You. And in Latin there is the same construction as usual: the second S. W. is put in the A. case; as Me, Te. But in English, the above construction is not the most usual one. It is not usual to repeat the S. W. Instead of the second S. W., we use simply the Pres. Inf.; thus making only one simple sentence. Thus we say, I hope to come, You hope to come, We hope to live long, &c. Whenever therefore you have to translate such an English sentence as this, consider whether the verb in the Pres. Inf. refers to a time future to the time denoted by the first verb; and if it does, use the Compound for the Fut. Inf.; always remembering to insert the pronoun in the A. case. Translate

I engage to finish the business.
I promised to come.

B. Recipio me confecturum esse negotium.

Promisi me venturum esse.

A. Yes. The finishing and the coming are future to the engaging and the promising; and therefore you use the Future Compound.

For further Examples of the use of the Infinitive in Latin, see the Exercises.

19. *Ablative Absolute. May generally be explained by the usual law of the Ab. Case. a.*

Before leaving the Cases, there is one construction that we must briefly consider.

Cæsar victis hostibus Romam rediit.

Cæsar, his enemies being conquered, returned to Rome. Or, as we should say,

Cæsar, having conquered his enemies, returned to Rome.

Parse Victis.

B. *Victis.* Ab. P. m.; from Victus; Perf. Pass. Part.; from Vinc-o, ĕre, vici, victus; conquer. Agreeing with Hostibus in gender, number, and case.

A. Yes. The construction of the Participle is clear. It is that of an adjective agreeing with its noun. But what is the construction of Hostibus? A noun in the Ab. case names an object mentioned as Accompanying, or telling something more about, or in any way Subsidiary to the action of the Subject. Now the noun Hostibus, standing alone, does not seem to tell anything at all about Cæsar's return. It is therefore said to be in the *Ablative Absolute,* Absolute meaning Absolved or Free from construction. But though the noun Hostibus, taken by itself, seems to stand in the sentence without construction, you will, I think, if you take the Participle Victis with it, find a construction for the two considered together. The fact of his enemies being conquered tells something about Cæsar's return. It may shew the cause why he returned—because they were conquered; or the time when he returned—not till they were conquered; or the manner in which he returned—as a conqueror. Whenever therefore you meet with a noun in the Ab. case, and a Participle agreeing with it, do not be content to call it the Ablative Absolute, and say it has no construction: but, though you may use the name, always endeavour to shew how the idea expressed by the two words taken together may be brought under your ordinary Rule for the Ab. case. Take for instance, Servus ruptis vinculis evolavit.

B. The slave, having broken his chains, escaped. The breaking of his chains was the means of his escape.

b. *The way to translate the English Compound for the Perf. Active Participle, which is wanting in Latin.*

A. Yes. And, on the other hand, remember that the Ablative Absolute is a convenient way of translating the English Compound for the Perfect Active Participle which is wanting in Latin. There is no Form or Compound of Amo answering to the English Compound, Having loved.

Translate

Caius, having seen his son, came to Rome.

B. Caius, viso filio, venit Romam.

A. Yes. Put the noun after the English Act. Part. in the Ab. case, and use the Pass. Part., making it agree with the noun in gender, number, and case.

c. *Deponent Participle.*

But if the Latin Verb is Deponent, you keep the same construction as in English: for the Deponent has a form for the Perf. Part. with Act. signification: as

The slave, having long suffered imprisonment, died of disease.

Servus, vincula diu passus, morbo periit.

20. *Prepositions.* *a.*

We must now say a few words about Prepositions.

We have seen that the connexion between objects is shewn in Latin by changes in the form of their nouns; that is, by Cases. But the circumstances under which objects may be connected together are so numerous, that it is impossible for them all to be accurately distinguished by the Six Cases of Nouns. Little words therefore, called Prepositions, are placed before nouns, in order to make this distinction more clear. And as the circumstances denoted by the A. and Ab. Cases are the most various, it is before these cases that Prepositions are placed. Let us take a few Examples.

b. *When used before Place to which.*

Caius in Italiam venit.

Caius came to Italy, or into Italy.

You remember we said (7) that the Place *to* which, &c., had its noun in the A. case. This rule always holds good; but with this difference. The names of Towns, and (usually) Islands are put simply in the A. case, as in the former Examples. But Prepositions, as In or Ad, are generally to be inserted before the names of Countries; and always before the names of objects, not Proper; as Ager field, Thalamus chamber; with the exception of Domus home, and Rus country (as opposed to town): which two nouns from their special use are regarded as Proper names. Then you would say,

Caius Romam rediit. Nauta Rhodum venit. Ite domum, pueri. Ego rus ibo.

But

Caius in Italiam rediit.
Pastor ad Lanuvinum agrum venit.
Ite ad stabula, pueri.
Ego in thalamum ibo.

c.
When used before Place from which.

The same difference holds, though not so strictly, with nouns which name the Place *from* which, &c.: as

Caius Româ rediit. Nauta Rhodo venit.
Ite domo, pueri. Ego rure redibo.

But Prepositions, as A or Ab, E or Ex, are generally inserted before the names of countries: as

Caius ab Italiâ rediit.
Nauta ex Macedoniâ venit.

And frequently before the names of objects, not Proper: as

Lupus ab agro Lanuvino decurrit.
Ex thalamo prodii.

d.
When used before Place in or at which.

And so with nouns which name the Place *at* which, &c., as

Caius Tibure vixit. Nauta Rhodi habitabat.
Puer domi[1] mansit. Lætus rure[2] manebo.

But

Hannibal in Italiâ bella gessit.
Thesaurum in agro inveni.
In thalamo sedebam.

e.
A *with the Ab. case.* Ad *with the Ac.*

From the above Examples you see that the Cases retain their distinctive character, when preceded by Prepositions. *A* or *Ab*, which denotes separation *From*, is used only with the Ablative (8). *Ad*, which denotes addition *To*, only with the

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[1] See Ex. VII. 4. i. Domūs is the G. of Domus; meaning, Of a house. The G. Domi is used as a Locative, meaning, At home.

[2] Ruri is also used as a Locative. Also the Genitives, Humi, and Militiæ: as Humi jacebam; I was lying on the ground: Virtus fuit domi militiæque cognita; Both at home and on foreign service; or simply, both at home and abroad: Una semper militiæ et domi fuimus; We were always together both at home and abroad. So too the G. Belli occasionally; but only with Domi: as Res belli domique gestæ, Home and foreign administration.

In *with the Ab. when denoting* rest in: *with the A. when denoting* motion to, *so as to be in.*

Accusative (7). *In* denotes position *In* or *On;* and you might expect to find it only with the Ablative (9). But its use with the Accusative may easily be explained. In thalamum venit, means, He came *to* his chamber so as to be *in* it. Thalamum is in the A. case, not strictly as governed by *In,* but as naming the object operated on directly by the action of coming (7). In English, we combine the double idea in the one word *Into;* and say, He came *into* his chamber.

f. Sub *with A. and Ab.*

Similarly *Sub,* which denotes position *Under.* Sub lecto jacet means, He lies under the bed. It sub lectum, He goes to the bed so as to be under it, he seeks the concealment of the bed.

Thus you see how Prepositions serve to distinguish the circumstances denoted by the Cases of a noun. If there were no Prepositions, Lecto jacet might mean, He lies *on* the bed, or *under* the bed; Lecto in either sentence naming the object mentioned as accompanying the action of lying. But the Prepositions make it clear which of these two circumstances is meant.

g. Pro.

So too, Patriâ mortuus est might have meant, He died *in* his country, or *for* his country; Patriâ in the latter sentence naming the cause of his dying. But as this would be obscure, Prepositions are introduced; and you have

In patriâ; in his country.

Pro patriâ; for (the sake of) his country.

h. *Great difference between Prepositions in English and Latin.*

In English, as the Noun has hardly any formal Cases, Prepositions are used much more frequently than in Latin. So you must be careful not to translate English Prepositions by the corresponding Latin Prepositions indiscriminately. Caius gave a book *to* the boy. You don't say *Ad* puerum. Boy names the object acted on indirectly by Caius, and therefore Puero is in the D. case. Caius struck me *with* a stick. You don't say *Cum* baculo. Stick names the object mentioned as accompanying, or telling something more about, the action of striking; being the instrument with which Caius struck; and therefore Baculo is in the Ab. case without a Preposition: Caius me baculo percussit.

k. Cum.

But when With means Together with, then you must use Cum. Caius came with Balbus. Balbus is mentioned as accompanying Caius, and therefore his noun is in the Ab. case.

But we have always said that the accompaniment denoted by the Ab. case is that of subordination to the action of the subject of the sentence. Now Balbus is not mentioned as in any way subordinate to the coming of Caius. You might say, Caius and Balbus came; putting Balbus on an equality with the Subject-word Caius. So Balbus cannot stand in the Ab. case without some explanatory word. Such a word is the Preposition Cum: and you translate, Caius *cum* Balbo venit. And whenever an object is mentioned as accompanying on terms of equality, not as subordinate to, the action of the Subject, be sure to insert the Preposition Cum before the Ab. case.

l.
Prepositions in composition with Verbs.

There is a very important use of Prepositions which we can only glance at now; but which you must carefully note in dealing with Latin words, and English words formed from the Latin. Prepositions are used in Composition with Verbs; under which circumstances they generally impart their own meaning to the verb. Thus: Eo, I go; Abeo, I go from, depart; Adeo, go to, approach; Exeo, go out of, leave, make my exit. Before verbs beginning with consonants, the form of the Preposition is frequently modified. Ab and fero make Aufero, I bring from; Ad and fero make Affero (also written Adfero) I bring to; Cum and fero make Confero, I bring together; E and fero make Effero, I bring from out of. And in Composition the vowel of the verb is frequently changed: for example, a into i: as Adjicio, Accipio, Accĭdo, Accīdo; from Ad and jacio, capio, cado, cædo.

21.
Passive Voice. The Noun of the Agent must have A *or* Ab *before it.*

The Preposition A or Ab has a peculiar use with verbs in the Passive Voice. How should you put into Latin, Pompey was conquered by Cæsar?

B. I think I should have said, Pompeius Cæsare victus est. But I suppose you mean the that Preposition A must be put before Cæsare.

A. Yes. Pompeius names the subject of the sentence, and therefore is in the N. case. But Cæsar is not mentioned as subordinate to Pompey. On the contrary, he is the Agent or Actor. His noun therefore cannot stand in a subordinate case by itself. But it stands in the Ab. case, as usual, on the score of accompaniment: and its peculiar meaning is shewn by prefixing the Preposition A. A denotes motion From; and the action expressed by the verb is thus denoted as coming from the Agent. Pompeius *a* Cæsare victus est. Pompey's being conquered came from Cæsar. Remember therefore after a Passive Verb always to put the noun which names the *Agent* in the Ab. case, with the Preposition A or Ab prefixed. Translate,

Cæsar was killed by a dagger.

Cæsar mucrone occisus est.

A. Yes. Mucrone names not a *person,* but a *thing:* not an agent, but an instrument: and therefore it is in the Ab. case, without a Preposition, with a Passive verb; just as it would be with an Active verb. With either, it tells something more about the performance of the action, but it does not itself perform it.

22. *How to turn an active construction into a Passive: a. When the Verb takes the A. case.*

You thus see how to turn an Active construction into a Passive.

Ego amo puerum, I love the boy.

Puer a me amatur, The boy is loved by me.

Turn this. Caius meque et uxorem meam domo pepulit.

B. Et ego et uxor mea domo a Caio pulsi sumus.

A. Parse the sentence.

B. *Et, et.* Conjunctions, joining the words Ego and Uxor.

Ego and *Uxor.* Subject-words to Sumus.

Mea. Possessive Adjective; N. S. f.; agreeing with Uxor.

Domo. Noun; Ab. S.; from Domus, G. Domūs; f.; house. Name of an object mentioned as explanatory of the action of being driven—being the place *from* which; and not taking a Preposition like names of common objects generally, being regarded as a Proper name.

Caio. Proper Noun. In the Ab. with the Prep. A, being the name of the Agent.

Pulsi. N. P. m.; from Pulsus; Perf. Pass. Part.; from Pello, pell-ere, pepuli, pulsus; drive. In the N., as agreeing with the Subject-word; in the P., as agreeing with two Subject-words; in the m., as agreeing with Ego, the worthier person.

Sumus. Copula; 1. P. pres. ind.; from Sum. Used as an auxiliary with the Participle Pulsi to make up the Perf. Pass. tense of Pello. In the P. as agreeing with two Subject-words; in the 1st p., as agreeing with the worthier person, Ego.

A. Turn, Magister puerum musicam docuit.

b. How, when it takes two.

B. Puer a magistro doctus est. I don't know what case to put Musica in?

A. Why not? In the Active sentence Musica is in the A. case, because the music is conceived as moved from master to boy (12). Is it less so in the Passive sentence? Whether the sentence runs, The master teaches the boy, or The boy is taught by the master, the sense is the same. The music is alike mentioned as operated on directly, as moved from master to boy; and therefore Musica is in the A. case.

Similarly, you may expect all verbs capable of taking two Accusatives in the Active Voice to be capable of taking one in the Passive: as

Posceris exta bovis.

Cato rogatus est sententiam.

c.

And so too, though the construction is not an usual one, you might expect to find the Infinitive mood after the Passive form of those verbs which in the Active take an A. and Inf. (13, 14); as Caius dicitur furere, Caius is said to be mad. Whether the sentence runs, Caius is said to be mad, or They say that Caius is mad, the Being mad is alike conceived as moved from the mouth of the speaker to the ears of the hearer; and therefore the Infinitive is used as a noun in the A. case.

23. *Intransitive Verbs.* *a.*

B. There is one question I want to ask about the Passive Voice. Can all verbs pass through a Passive form? I can fancy all Transitive verbs in the Passive; as Amor, I am loved; Vincor, I am conquered. But I cannot fancy Intransitive; I cannot say, Curror, I am run; Ambulor, I am walked.

A. Certainly not; because you cannot say, Curro Caium, or Ambulo Caium; as you can say, Amo Caium, Vinco Caium. You cannot mention Caius as operated on directly by the action of running; and therefore you can neither put Caius in the A. case after the Active Curro, nor, which means the same thing, in the N. case as S. W. to the Passive Curritur. But cannot you think of an object which may be conceived as operated on by the action of running? Cannot we use in English a noun after Run?

b. Cognate *Noun. Used as A. D. W. after an Int. Verb in the Active; but not as S. W. to it in the Passive Voice.*

B. We can say, I run a race.

A. True; and, I go a journey, I play a game, &c. And so in Latin. Every verb has, or may have, a noun akin to it, which names the action denoted by the verb. This is called the verb's *Cognate* (or related) noun: and may be put in the A. case after the verb, because the object named by it may be conceived as acted on by the subject of the sentence. If I say, Caius runs a race, I can conceive the race as acted on directly by Caius; being performed by him, or changed from a not existing to an existing and accomplished thing. Therefore we can say in Latin, Curro cursum, Ambulo or Eo iter, Vivo vitam, Pugno pugnam, Servio servitutem, and so on. Now tell me, how should you think such verbs might be used in the Passive?

B. I should think we might say, Cursus curritur, Vita vivitur, Pugna pugnatur, and the like.

A. Naturally you would. And we do find such sentences: as

Tertia vivitur ætas.

Libenter hoc et omne militabitur Bellum: in which Vivitur and Militabitur are used like ordinary verbs, agreeing with their Subject-words Ætas and Bellum in number and person.

c. *Int. Verbs.* Imperso-nal *in the Passive.*

But this, remember, is not the usual construction. Intransitive Verbs in the Passive Voice are almost always used *impersonally:* that is, without a S. W. (v. 14). They are never used in the first or second Persons; because the objects named by Cognate nouns are not likely to hold conversation together, and therefore the Subject-words Ego and Tu are not wanted. And when used in the third Person, instead of being joined to and agreeing with their Cognate nouns as Subject-words, they generally stand alone in the sentence; that is, they are Impersonal: as

d. *But pass through moods and tenses.*

Concurritur. It is run together, Men run together.

Vivitur a nobis feliciter. It is lived happily by us, We live happily.

Acriter utrinque pugnatum est.

Statim ad arma discursum.

Hic centum regnabitur annos.

Ventum erat ad limen.

You see that Intransitive verbs in the Passive Voice, though confined to the third Person of the S. Number, pass through Tenses, like Transitive verbs: as also they do through Moods. And that for the Perfect, &c., Tenses the ordinary Compounds are used: viz., some form of the Copula and the Perf. Pass.

Part. of the Verb. And that this Part. is only used in the neuter gender.

B. Does not this shew that it must really agree with some neuter noun? I should like to find some S. W. for these Passive verbs; as hitherto we have been so particular about a verb agreeing with its S. W.

A. Well, since you are so particular, you may, if you like, suppose the Inf. Active of the verb to be the S. W. The Inf. names the action denoted by the verb, just as the Cognate noun does; and it is always regarded as a noun of the neuter gender. Thus the construction might be, Currere curritur, Running is run: Pugnare pugnatum est, Fighting was fought: and so forth. But, as such combinations are never found, you must be content, for all practical purposes, to regard Intransitive Verbs as Impersonal in the Passive Voice.

24. *Parco, &c. are Intransitive, and therefore Impersonal in the Passive.*

B. I suppose then that Credo, Pareo, Parco, and other verbs governing the Dative are Impersonal in the Passive.

A. Yes. We classed them as Intransitive. Those only are strictly Transitive, which take habitually an A. case[1]. These verbs require great care, because of the difference between the English and Latin idiom. In English we say, I love Caius, and, I believe Caius. Therefore we can also say, Caius is loved, and Caius is believed. But in Latin, while we say Amo Caium, and therefore Caius a me amatur; we say Credo Caio, and therefore we cannot say, Caius a me creditur. It is only an object acted on directly that can be named as the Subject of a Passive sentence. We must therefore have recourse to the Impersonal construction, and say, Creditur a me Caio; Credence is given by me to Caius; Caio being in the D. as naming the object concerned in, or receiving, the credence, just as it is in the Active sentence, Credo Caio.

Translate, according to the English idiom,

Huic ætati favetur magis quam invidetur.

B. This age is indulged rather than envied.

A. In parsing Intransitive Verbs, you must give the same

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[1] You may take as a test of a Transitive Verb: in Latin, that it is followed habitually by an A. case: in English, (where there is no case but the Genitive) that it is followed by a noun without a preposition. Parco therefore is Intransitive; Spare, Transitive.

25. *Int. Verbs pass through the Perf. Pass. Participle, though only in the n. gender.*

forms that you give of Transitive: as Curro, curr-ĕre, cucurri, cursum[1].

a. Cursum being the Perf. Pass. Participle. You thus shew a difference between Transitive and Intransitive verbs. You put the Participle of the former in the masculine gender, because it passes through the three genders, as Amat-us, a, um; Vict-us, a, um: but the Participle of the latter (when there is one) in the neuter gender, because it is used only in that gender; as Pugnatum, ventum, &c.: and only in the N. and A. singular.

b. Use of this Participle as the origin of English Words.

In verbs of both kinds, this Perf. Pass. Part. is a form which you must particularly notice: not only for the use made of it in Latin for the compound tenses, but because so many of the English words derived from the Latin are formed from it. In the Seventh Chapter, we did not give these words among the English Derivatives, because we were not then dealing with the Passive Voice. Thus we gave Convene, &c., as coming from Venio; but not the more ordinary words, Advent, Convent, Invent, &c. So from the Participle of Curro comes Course; of Vinco, Victory; of Vivo, Victuals; of Sedeo, Session; of Rego, Rector, Direct, &c.; of Video, Vision; and so on. In this Chapter, I have not said much about Derivatives, because I did not wish to distract your attention from the grammatical points we were considering; but I trust you will never lose sight of them. When you are dealing with a Latin word, think of all the English words that can possibly come from it. When you are dealing with an English word, trace it back, if you can, to some Latin word. If you cannot, it will probably be a Saxon word. You will thus learn many new English words, and old familiar words will become to you full of life. Take, for example, a word we have just used, Attention. It comes from the Latin word Tendo, Stretch. Phœbus tendit arcum; Phœbus stretches his bow. A man therefore who *attends* to another stretches out his neck as it were towards (ad) him, so as to lose none of his words. *Attend* comes from the Root in Tend-ere; *Attention* from the Participial root in Tent-us; which also supplies us with the noun *Tent*—the name of an object stretched out. And you should notice in the same way Saxon words: as, for instance, Heaven from the Participle of Heave—a thing heaved up: an idea of Heaven expressed in the old Polish boast "that if the heaven itself were to fall, they would support it on the points of their lances[1]."

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[1] This is also the form of the active Supine in *um*; and we are generally told to give the Supine in *um* of Intransitive verbs. But I can see no advantage in going out of our way to give such an unusual and comparatively useless form as the Supine, when we might give, as usual, the important Participle. In Transitive Verbs we give the Participle, because it is required for the compound tenses. Why not give it then in Intransitive Verbs, where it is equally required for the same purpose? If we can use the compounds Pugnatum est, Ventum erat, there certainly are such Participles as Pugnatum and Ventum.

26. *Passive Participle* in dus. *a.* *Used with the Dative Case.*

There is another Passive Participle to be considered—the Participle in *dus*, as it is called. This Part. is formed, like the Present, &c. Tenses, from the root of the verb, by adding to it, according to the conjugation, *and, end,* or *iend;* with the participial or adjectival terminations, *us, a um:* as am-and-us, mon-end-us, reg-end-us, aud-iend-us, a, um. In use, it generally denotes that an action *must* or *ought* to be performed. The object, on whom this necessity or duty falls, is conceived as acted on indirectly; as affected by, or concerned in, the necessity or duty; and therefore, when mentioned at all, has its noun in the D. case. Take the following examples.

b. *Declined like Bonus.*

1. Bonus puer laudandus est patri.
   A good boy ought to be praised by his father.
2. Virtus Christiano est colenda.
   Virtue must be practised by the Christian.
3. Vitanda est desidia.
   Sloth should be avoided.
4. Vitia senectutis diligentia[2] compensanda sunt.

The defects of old age must be compensated by diligence.

You see that the Part. in *dus*, like any other adjective or participle, is coupled to the S. W. by the Copula (which, as usual, is frequently omitted) and agrees with the S. W. in gender, number, and case.

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[1] So Field, anciently spelt Feld, is the Participle of Fell: meaning a place where the trees have been felled. (See Trench, *On the Use of Words.*)

[2] Notice the origin of this word. Diligo means, I love: and therefore Diligentia, Loving. But as, if you love a work, you take to it earnestly, Diligentia comes to mean Industry, and supplies us with the word Diligence in the same sense. You see the lesson which the word teaches, If you would be industrious in your work, you must love it.

c. *Dative may be omitted.*

From sentence (3) you see that the noun in the D. may be omitted. And it always is omitted, unless you wish particularly to name the object on which the necessity or duty falls. Sloth is to be avoided. By whom? Men generally. Therefore Men need not be named. The defects of old age must be compensated. By whom? Old men, obviously. Therefore they need not be named.

d. *Preserves the construction of the Verb.*

From sentence (4) too you see that the Part. in *dus* preserves the usual construction of the Passive verb. As you can say, Vitia senectutis diligentiâ compensantur; Diligentiâ naming the accompanying object or means, and therefore being in the Ab. case; so you can say Vitia senectutis diligentiâ compensanda sunt. And so, to take another instance,

Malus servus domo ejiciendus est.

The bad slave must be turned out of doors.

e. *English Compounds for Part. in* dus. *Usually take an Active form.*

Observe the several compounds we have in English for translating this form. Must be, Should be, Ought to be, Is to be, with the Passive Participle. But observe also that we do not usually employ the Passive construction. We say, Actively; The Christian should practise virtue; We must avoid sloth. When therefore you have in English such an Active sentence, remember that in Latin the A. D. W. becomes the S. W.; the Active Compound becomes the Pass. Part. in *dus*; and the English S. W. is put in the D. case, when you wish particularly to name the object; but omitted, when it is clear what object is meant, or when what is said holds good of people in general.

27. *Intransitive Verbs take the termination in* um *of the Part. in* dus, *just as of the Perf. Pass. Participle.*

How should you put into Latin,

I ought not to believe Caius?

B. Caius non mihi credendus est.

A. Indeed. Then also you would say, Caius creditur, or Creditus est, or Ego credor, or Tu crederis, which we have shewn to be wrong (24). No. Credo being Intransitive, and therefore Impersonal in the Passive, the Participle in *dus*, like

a.

the Perf. Part., can only be used in the neuter gender. Therefore you should say, Caio mihi non credendum est: or, leaving out the mihi; as the two Datives are awkward, and you would hardly use this construction, unless it were clear who ought not to believe Caius;

Caio non credendum est.

Parse and translate

Resistendum senectuti est. b.

B. *Resistendum.* Part. in *dus;* from Resist-o, ĕre, restiti, restitum; resist; N. S. n.; used impersonally.

Senectuti. Noun; D. S.; from Senectus, tutis; f.; old age. Name of the object acted on indirectly by, or receiving, the resistance.

Est. Copula. Impersonal too, I suppose. I don't see any construction for it.

A. Nor I. Unless we take the Inf. Resistere, understood as the S. W. Then it would be clear. Fighting must be fought against old age. Est would agree with the S. W. in number and person, and Resistendum in gender, number, and case. Turn into Latin,

We ought to spare the conquered.

B. I suppose you don't mean We in particular, but We generally. So it need not be translated, and the Latin will be

Victis parcendum est.

A. Once more. Turn into Latin, c.

The boy must not sleep.

B. Oh, there is no doubt about that. Dormio is one of the quite Intransitive Verbs. It does not take an A., like Amo: nor a D., like those half-and-half words, Parco, Resisto, and the like. So of course it is used impersonally in the Passive.

Puero non dormiendum est.

Is that right?

A. Yes. Here is an example of each sort of Verb: verbs that take the A. case, the D. case, and no case at all after them. d.

1. Mentes formandæ sunt studiis.
2. Succurrendum est miseris.
3. Pueris tacendum est.

In such sentences you must carefully distinguish, whether the D. case is owing to the action of the verb, or to the duty implied by the Part. in *dus.* In (2) it is owing to the former; the wretched receiving the succour. In (3) to the latter; the boys receiving the duty or obligation.

The Part. in *dus* passes through cases, numbers, and e.

genders, like any other adjective. You will find in the Exercise examples of its use in the subordinate cases.

28. *Gerunds.* *a.* *Active.* We will now go on with Gerunds: which, though resembling in form the Pass. Part. in *dus*, are Active in signification; and were therefore placed under the Active Voice.

b. *With the Inf. Mood make up a Noun.* You had better regard them as Cases of the Infinitive Mood: thus,

N.	Amare, Loving.
G.	Amandi, Of loving.
D. and Ab.	Amando, To, by, &c., loving.
A.	Amare, or Amandum, Loving.

Amandum being used only after Prepositions.

Like the Inf. the Gerund names the action denoted by the verb. In order to shew the circumstances in which the action is placed, it passes through Cases: viz. the G., D., Ab., and A. (with a preposition): but is wanting in those for which the Inf. serves: viz. the N. and A. (without a preposition). The two together therefore may be considered to make up a noun, irregular indeed in form, but regular in use, and subject to exactly the same conditions as an ordinary noun. Let us make the noun Peccare, Sinning, or To sin, enter a sentence under the several circumstances denoted by the Cases of a noun.

S. W.	Peccare est humanum.
P. W.	Patior pœnas peccàndi.
A. I. W.	Homo obnoxius est peccando.
A. D. W.	Scio homines peccare, or Scio peccare humanum esse.
	Inter peccandum sæpe dolemus.
A. W.	Puer parentes peccando vexat.

c. We perhaps owe these Gerunds to the absence of the Article in Latin. In Greek the Article passes through cases, like an adjective: and therefore, by placing it before the Inf., you can make it clear which case of the Inf. you mean. But in Latin, as there is no Article, some such changeable form as the Gerund is required to help the Inf. through its cases.

d. *Govern Cases as a Verb.* Of course the Gerund, by being considered a noun like the Inf., does not lose its power of governing Cases, any more than the Inf. does: as

Injurias ferendo quam ulciscendo majorem laudem mereberis.

You will earn greater praise by bearing than by avenging injuries.

The Gerunds are generally distinguished as the Gerund in *di*, the Gerund in *do*, and the Gerund in *dum*.

29. *Supines.* *a.* *In* um.

There are two Supines, generally distinguished as; the Supine in *um*, and the Supine in *u*.

Supines in *um* are used thus:

Lusum it Mæcenas, dormitum ego Virgiliusque.

Mæcenas goes to play, Virgil and I to sleep.

Misi legatos pacem petitum.

I sent ambassadors to ask for peace.

You see therefore that the English Inf., when it denotes a *purpose*, may be rendered into Latin, by the Supine in *um*.

b. *In* u.

Supines in *u* are seldom used. They occur thus:

Quod factu fœdum est, idem est et dictu turpe.

What is base to do is also shameful to say.

The construction seems to be, What is base in the doing is also shameful in the saying. As if the Supine in *u*, like the Gerund in *do*, were an Ab. case of the Infinitive.

c.

And so the Supine in *um* may be regarded as an A. case of the Inf.; used to name an action, when mentioned as a purpose; in which sense the Inf. is seldom used. The Accusative Gerund also names an action as a purpose; but with the Preposition Ad prefixed; for it is never used without a Preposition: as

Misi legatos ad pacem petendum.

30. *Future Active Participle.*

There remains the Future Active Participle. We have seen how it is used in combination with the Copula to serve for the Future Infinitive (17). It is also used, like the Gerund and Supine, to denote *purpose*: as

Misi legatos pacem petituros.

I sent ambassadors to ask for peace.

Petituros is an adjective, agreeing with Legatos in gender, number, and case. It shews what sort of men the Legati were —about-to-ask men.

31. *Personal Pronouns.* *Sui.* *a.*

We now come to Pronouns. We have not yet spoken of them, because we have confined ourselves to simple sentences: and the only Pronoun that requires much notice, that is, the Relative, is only used in a double sentence. But first I must say a few words about *Personal* Pronouns.

We have said, if you remember, that there are in Latin only two perfect Pronouns—Ego and Tu. There is none answering exactly to the English Pronoun for the third Person, He, She, It. But there is the Defective Pronoun *Sui,* which we use under certain circumstances for the third Person, instead of repeating the noun. It has no N. case, and therefore can never be the Subject-word. It passes through three forms, Sui, Sibi, Se, which serve for the other cases, both singular and plural, whether the noun for which it stands is of the m., f., or n. gender. Thus:

b. How used.

1. Puer amore sui culpatur.
2. Puellæ sibi favent.
3. Caius se occidit.
4. Animalia inter se pugnant.
5. Caius scit se mentiri.
6. Regulus parvos natos a se removit.

You see from these sentences that it is only used instead of repeating the Subject-word; that S. W. being neither Ego nor Tu, but naming some third Person. Instead of saying in (3) Caius occidit Caium, we can say, Caius *se* occidit; putting Se instead of Caium over again. So in (5); Caius knows, Whom? Not Caium over again, but Se, himself. What? To lie, or Lying. Caius knows himself to lie.

c. Called Reflective.

It is called the Reflective Pronoun, because it refers, or is *reflected* back for its meaning, to the Subject of the Sentence. Its use may be defined thus:

d. Rule for Use.

The Reflective Pronoun is used when the Subject, being some third Person, has to be named again in the same sentence.

Or, which is the same thing,

It names the Subject of the sentence in subordinate circumstances.

e. A. D. W. after Verbs of Hoping, &c.

If you compare its use with that of Ego and Tu, you will see that a person *spoken of* (i. e. a third Person) gets exactly the same use out of it, that a person *speaking* (i. e. a first Person), or *spoken to* (i. e. a second Person), gets out of the subordinate cases of Ego and Tu.

How then should you translate,

Caius hopes to come?

B. Since the coming is future to the hoping, Venio will be in the Fut Inf.; and since I should say (18), Ego spero me venturum esse, I hope to come;

Tu speras te venturum esse, You hope to come;

it follows that I must say,

Caius sperat se venturum esse.

A. Yes; and so, too, if the Noun is in the P. number, or of the f. gender; as

Puellæ sperant se venturas esse;

The girls hope to come.

32. *Possessives.* *a.* The Possessives are simply Adjectives, both in form and use. They are not used so commonly in Latin as in English. For, I love my father, Amo patrem is sufficient; it being understood that it is *my* father whom I love. But for, You love my father, we must say, Amas patrem meum; because there is nothing to connect *my* father with *your* loving.

b. *Suus.* As there is no Personal Pronoun in Latin for the third person, so there is no Possessive answering to it. For Possessives are nothing but declined genitive cases of Personal Pronouns. But there is Suus answering to Sui. Suus indeed, placed before a noun, marks the object named by it as belonging to some third person: but only when the third person is the Subject of the sentence. How should you translate,

Caius killed his daughter?

B. If you mean his own daughter,

Caius suam filiam occidit.

A. Yes. You use Suus, because His refers to Caius, the Subject of the sentence. But not, if it refers to some third person mentioned before. Do not translate therefore the English His, her, &c. by Suus, unless you can turn it into His, her &c. own: as, Caius killed his own daughter.

B. How then am I to translate His, when I cannot turn it into His own?

33. *Demonstratives.* *a.* *A.* By one of the Demonstratives. The Demonstratives indeed are Adjectives, being capable of being placed before nouns. Hic is not a Pronoun, like He. You can say, Hic homo; but not, He man. The noun however is usually omitted when it is clear what noun is meant, and when we speak of man, woman, or thing generally: and then the Demonstrative *can* be translated by our Pronoun for the third Person, He, She, It.

Cimon Cypri mortuus est. Hunc Athenienses diu desideraverunt.

Hunc agrees with Hominem, omitted: this man. But in English, *This* cannot stand alone, when it marks a male or female object. We use instead the Pronoun for the third Person, He or She, and say, The Athenians long regretted *him*. So, for the above sentence, Caius killed his daughter, you would say, if His does not refer to Caius:

Caius hujus (*or* ejus) filiam occidit.

Hujus agreeing with Hominis omitted, and being in the G. case, as naming the Possessor of the daughter.

b. *Like Adjectives.* Thus Demonstratives in Latin have been classed as Pronouns, because they can stand alone without their nouns. But so also can Adjectives, when we wish to name men, women, or things generally. *Boni* may stand alone for Good men, generally; Bonæ for Good women; Bona for Good things. But Good cannot stand alone in English. The reason of this difference, both with Demonstrative and other Adjectives, is that the *Gender* of the Adjective in Latin marks the object sufficiently; which the English Adjective, having no Gender, cannot do. We can however say, The good: meaning good people generally.

c. The exact difference between the Demonstratives, Hic, Ille, &c. cannot well be shewn by isolated sentences. As it depends generally on the context, we require a continuous narrative for its proper elucidation.

34. *Relative.* *a.* For the Relative, Qui, Quæ, Quod, take the following examples:

1. Puer, qui epistolam scripsit, discessit.
2. Puellæ, quæ epistolas scripserunt, discessere.
3. Ego, qui epistolam scripsi, discessi.
4. Vos, quæ epistolas scripsistis, discessistis.
5. Opus[1], quod cœptum erat, confectum est.
6. Opera, quæ cœpta erant, confecta sunt.

b. *Requires a distinct sentence.* In each Example there are two Sentences; one, Main; the other, subordinate. The latter is called the Relative Sentence, because it contains the Relative. Each has a distinct Subject-word, Verb, &c. of its own, according to the regular construction. Always make sure first of the Main S. W. and Verb, as in (1) Puer and Discessit: then of the S. W. and Verb in the Relative Sentence, as Qui and Scripsit. You will generally find the Relative Sentence included between Commas. It is fastened on to the Main Sentence by the Relative Qui; so called, because it *relates* to some word, noun or pronoun, in the Main Sentence. This word is called the Antecedent (foregoer): and the Law which joins the two together, commonly called the Third Concord, is,

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[1] The work, which had been begun, was finished.

c. Third Concord.

The Relative agrees with its Antecedent in gender, number, and person.

In gender. In (1) Puer is m.: therefore Qui is m. also.

In number. In (2) Puellæ is P.: therefore Quæ is P. also.

In person. In (3) Ego is the Pronoun for the first Person: therefore Scripsi, which agrees with the Relative Qui, is in the first P. also. Qui of course cannot shew person, as it shews gender and number, by any change of form: but it transmits to its verb the person of its antecedent.

d. Depends on its own sentence for Case.

But the Relative does *not* agree with the antecedent in *Case.* In the above sentences, they are both it is true in the N. case: but that is merely because each is the S.W. in its own sentence. The Relative depends for its Case on its own position in its own, i. e. the Relative, sentence.

e.

Translate and parse

Puer, quem ad te misi, scripsit epistolam.

B. The boy, whom I sent to you, wrote the letter.

Puer. Noun; N. S.; m.; Main S. W.

Scripsit. Main Verb; agreeing with Puer.

Epistolam. Noun; A. S.; after Scripsit; A. D. W. to S. W. Puer. (Word which names the object acted on directly by the Subject of the Sentence).

Quem. Relative; S. m.; agreeing with Antecedent Puer in number and gender. A.; after Misi, verb in the Rel. sentence; A. D. W. to S. W. Ego (understood).

Misi. Verb; 1. S. perf. ind. act. from Mitt-o, ĕre, misi, missus; send. Agreeing with Rel. S. W. Ego (understood) in number and person.

f.

A. Also. Caius puellis, quarum patrem ad te misi, dedit epistolam.

B. Caius gave the letter to the girls, whose father I sent to you.

Caius, Dedit, and *Epistolam.* Main S. W., Verb, and A. D. W.

Puellis. Noun; D. P.; f. After Dedit; A. I. W. to S. W. Caius.

Quarum. Relative; P. f.; agreeing with Antecedent Puellis in number and gender. G.; as naming the objects possessing the father.

Patrem. Noun; A. S.; m.; after Rel. verb Misi; A. D. W. to Rel. S. W. Ego (understood).

g. *A.* You must not expect the Antecedent always to stand in the sentence before the Relative.

Quam ad te misi, scripsit puer epistolam.

Quam, being S. f.—must have for its Antecedent some noun both S. and f. Such a noun is *Epistolam;* A. after main verb Scripsit; A. D. W. to main S. W. Puer. Quam is A. after Misi; A. D. W. to Rel. S. W. Ego.

The boy wrote the letter, which I sent to you.

h. Qui me amant, eos amo.

Qui. Relative; S. W. to amant. And it must be P., because Amant, which agrees with it, is P. Its antecedent therefore must be P.; and also m., as Qui is m. The Antecedent therefore must be *Eos,* or rather Homines; the noun with which Eos really agrees, but which, as usual, is omitted. I love those—people generally, who love me. *Homines* then is in the A., after main verb Amo; A. D. W. to main S. W. Ego. And *Qui,* which is P. m., as agreeing with Antecedent Homines, is in the N. case, as S. W. to Rel. verb Amant.

k. The Antecedent is often omitted when we speak of men, women, or things generally; and has to be inferred from the form of the Relative, and from the Main verb.

Qui me amant, amo.

As there are here two verbs, unconnected by conjunctions, there must be two sentences.

Qui, being P. and m., must have its Antecedents P. and m. also. *Amo,* being a Transitive verb, must have some noun understood after it in the A. case. Our Antecedent therefore must be A. P. m., some such word as Homines, or you may say Eos. But perhaps it would be better to supply none at all, and parse thus.

Qui. Relative; N.; S. W. to Amant. P. m.; agreeing with its omitted antecedent in number, gender, and person.

Amo. Transitive verb; 1. S. pres. ind. act. Agreeing with

Main S. W. Ego (omitted), and governing omitted Antecedent to Qui in the A. case. Again,

l. Qui me amat, odit[1] te.

Qui, you see, cannot be the Relative to Te as Antecedent; for, if it were, Amat which agrees with Qui in person, would be in the 2nd Person. And there must be some S. W. to Odit. Qui therefore has for its Antecedent the omitted S. W. to Odit: and Odit has for its S. W. the omitted antecedent to Qui. In English, we cannot do without this word: for the same reason that we cannot say This comes, meaning This man comes: or, The good rules her house well, meaning The good woman rules, &c.: the reason being, that the English Adjective does not pass through gender (33, *b*). We must therefore say,

He (or The man), who loves me, hates you.

m. *B.* Is *Qui* then to be considered an Adjective?

A. *Qui* can always be placed before a noun, as *Which* can in English; and therefore I suppose it must be considered an Adjective. We can say, Qui homo, Which man; Quæ puella, Which girl; Quod opus, Which work; &c. The exact construction of the Relative is this. It agrees with the antecedent, mentally repeated, but seldom inserted, in the relative sentence. Homo, quem misi, dicit. Quem agrees with Hominem understood. Homo quem (hominem) misi, dicit; the man, which (man) I sent, says.

Still, as the antecedent is hardly ever repeated, it would be unsatisfactory to parse the Relative as an adjective, depending altogether for its form on this invisible noun. It seems simpler to take it, as we have done, by itself; to consider it as depending for its case on its own position in its sentence: and so far we treat it as a pronoun. After all, it does not matter what you call it, so that you thoroughly understand its construction. And remember, that, wherever you have a Relative, there you must have a distinct and perfect sentence, in which the Relative must find a place.

n. *Relative Sentence sort of Adjective to the Antecedent.*

The Relative sentence, though it must be complete in itself, may be regarded as a sort of complex adjective attached to the Antecedent: and then there will be only one Main sentence. Thus, The boy, who wrote the letter, departed; becomes, The letter-writing boy departed. The boy wrote the letter, which

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[1] See v. 33.

I sent you; becomes, The boy wrote the to-you-sent letter; Puer ad te missam epistolam scripsit. And so on. You will often find several Relative sentences fastened on to the Main sentence, like so many feeders swelling the main flow of the narrative.

o. Relative Sentence independent of Main Sentence in sense and form.

In the above Examples of Two Sentences coupled together, the Relative is quite independent of the Main sentence. It has a separate construction of its own, saving only the connexion just explained between the Relative and Antecedent words. It is thus independent in form, because it is also independent in sense. It narrates a fact, not necessarily connected with the main fact. The boy, who wrote the letter, departed. I love the boy, who wrote the letter. The writing the letter does not depend on the departing or on the loving. But in the Examples I am now going to give, you will find a sentence so coupled to the main sentence, as to be dependent on it for its sense, and therefore also dependent on it for its form.

35. *Subjoined Sentence.*

Mitto legatos, ut petant pacem,
I send ambassadors, that they may ask for peace.

a. Dependent on Main Sentence in sense; therefore has its Verb in the Sub-junctive *Mood.*

The asking is here dependent on the sending. They do not ask till they are sent. That is the purpose for which they are sent. This dependence in sense is shewn by *Ask* being put in the Subjunctive mood. Thus you would parse Petant.

Petant. Verb; 3. P. pres. Subj. Act.; from Peto, pet-ĕre, petivi, petitus; ask. Agreeing with S. W. Legati understood; and *Subjoined* to Mitto by the Conjunction Ut.

b. Subjoined by Conjunctions, and by Qui.

Such Dependent sentences are generally subjoined to the Main sentence by Conjunctions, as Ut, Si, &c. But they may also be subjoined by the Relative. If you say,

Mitto legatos, qui *petunt* pacem,
I send ambassadors who ask for peace,

you merely state the fact that the Ambassadors who are sent do ask for peace. But if you say,

Mitto legatos, qui *petant* pacem,
I send ambassadors, who may ask for peace,

you state the fact of their asking as dependent on the fact of my sending; and therefore Petant is in the Subj. mood, being subjoined to the main verb Mitto by the Relative Qui.

c. Translates the English

You will of course observe, that neither, That they may ask, nor, Who may ask, is an ordinary English construction.

Infinitive, when it names a purpose.

We generally use the Infinitive mood: He sends ambassadors to ask for peace. So that now you have two more ways of translating the English Infinitive, when it denotes an end or *purpose;* by Ut or Qui with the Subjunctive.

d.
Tense of Subjoined Verbs.

The Verb in the Subjoined sentence is dependent on the Verb in the Main sentence not only for its *mood,* but also for its *tense,* as you will see from the following Examples:

1. Curro ut te videam	I run	to see you
2. Curram ...	I will run	...
3. Cucurri ...	I have run	...
4. Cucurri ut te viderem	I ran	...
5. Currebam ...	I was running	...
6. Cucurreram ...	I had run	...

From these you see that if the Main Verb is in the Present or Future Tense, the Subjoined Verb is in the Present; if in a Past tense, in the Imperfect.

e.
Definite and Indefinite Perfect.

B. But isn't the Perfect Cucurri, I have run, a Past tense? I don't quite understand the Examples (3) and (4).

A. Don't you see a difference between I ran, and I have run; between I loved, and I have loved? In Latin indeed there is only one form for the two; but the distinction is clearly marked in sense; and is marked in Greek by two distinct forms, the Aorist and Perfect; in English, by a Form and Compound, as I loved, and I have loved.

If you say, I loved, you denote the action as performed at some *indefinite* point in the whole extent of past time. This therefore is called the Indefinite Perfect. If you say, I have loved, you denote the action as performed during a space of time *limited* at the latter end, being brought up to the Present moment. I have loved him long, but now I love him no longer. The loving is brought up to, and limited by now. This therefore is called the Definite Perfect.

Since then the Definite Perfect denotes an action Past indeed, but Present in its limit, it is followed by the Subjoined Verb in the Present Tense: while the Indefinite, denoting an action altogether Past, is followed by the Subjoined Verb in the Imperfect. You can shew this difference in English, if you use a Subjoined sentence, instead of the simple Infinitive, to express a purpose: as,

I *have run* here quickly that I *may* see you, before you *start.*

I *ran* here quickly, that I *might* see you before you *started.*

f. *Use of* Be *as an auxiliary in English; instead of* Have.

Translate. I am come to see you.

B. Venio ut te videam.

A. No. Venio is present, denoting an action not yet completed: in English, I come, or I am coming. But, I am come, denotes an action just completed. The coming is finished, and here I am. It is therefore the Perfect Definite—in Latin, Vēni. Thus you have

Vĕnio ut te videam	I come to see you
Veni ...	I am come ...
Veni ut te viderem	I came ...
Veneram ...	I was come ...

Come, you see therefore, is one of the English verbs which form their Compounds with *Be* as an auxiliary, instead of *Have.* We do not say, I have come; but, I *am* come; not, He had gone; but, He *was* gone. You must take care with such verbs never to confuse the Present Participle, as Coming, and the Past Participle, as Come.

Our Rule then for the Subjoined Verb will be:

g. *Rule for the Subjoined Verb.*

If the Main verb is in the Present, Future, or Perfect Definite Tense, put the Subjoined verb in the Present Subjunctive. If the Main verb is in the Perfect Indefinite, or any other past tense, put the Subjoined verb in the Imperfect Subjunctive.

h. *Ut with the Subj. to be used when* That *can be replaced by* In order that.

Do you remember our Rule for turning into Latin an English sentence fastened on to another by the Conjunction That, when That cannot be replaced by In order that?

B. Yes. We were to use the A. and Inf. or Double Accusative.

A. Now then you know how to turn it, when That can be replaced by In order that.

B. Yes. We must use Ut and the Subjunctive.

A. And whenever you can replace the English Inf. by In order that and the Subjunctive, you must not use the Latin Inf., but Ut and the Subjunctive. I believe you *to be* happy. You cannot say, In order that you may be; so the Latin is, Credo te esse beatum. I was sent to fetch you. You can say, In order that I might fetch; so the Latin is, Missus sum ut (*or* qui) te arcesserem. How should you translate, I ask you to do this?

B. Rogo te hoc facere.

k. *After Rogo.*

A. You might expect this Construction. To do or Doing might very well be conceived as acted on directly by the Asking, and therefore Facere might be in the Inf., being used as a noun in the A. case. But this is not the usual Latin construction. It is possible to say, I ask in order that you may do this. The Doing is conceived as the result of the asking—the purpose for which I ask; and therefore Ut is used with the Subjunctive. Rogo te ut hoc facias.

l. *Ne for That not.*

When *That* is followed by *Not* in English, you must not use in Latin Ut and Non, but the negative conjunction Ne, Lest, or That not: as

I went away, *that* I might *not* see Caius.

Abii, ne Caium viderem.

And so too you must use *Ne* for the English Infinitive with *Not*, when denoting a purpose: as

I ask you *not* to do this.

Rogo te ne hoc facias.

I ask you lest you do this. My purpose in asking is, *that* you may *not* do this.

m. *Ut and Ne after Moneo, Nitor, &c.*

There are several other verbs in Latin followed by *Ut*, which you might expect to find with an Infinitive: as Moneo, advise; Hortor, exhort; Nitor, strive, &c.

It will not do therefore, either in this or any other instance, to turn English into Latin altogether according to the conception of the sense which we should naturally form in English. You must not only think, but remember. In reading Latin, you must try to find a reason for each construction you meet with; but whether you can find one or not, you must accept the construction as binding; and remember it carefully for use when turning English into Latin.

EXERCISES.

I.

On the Form of the Noun.

1. *First Declension.* WRITE out the terminations of the First Declension; and decline Porta, gate; Silva, wood; Mensa, table; Corona, crown.

What is the sign by which the Declension of a Noun is known? Why is it unnecessary to add the sign to the above nouns?

Of what gender are they? What is the gender of Agricola, husbandman; Nauta, sailor? Why? Decline them.

2. *Second.* Write out the terminations of the Second Declension; and decline Puer, G. puer-i, boy; Taurus, G. taur-i, bull; Magister, G. magistr-i, master; Donum, G. don-i, gift.

Give the G. and V. cases of Virgilius and Silentium, silence.

Of what gender are the nouns Corinthus; Cyprus; Pomus, apple tree; Hortus, garden; Fagus, beech?

Of what gender are nouns ending in *um*?

Give the rules for the n. gender, and V. case

3. *Third.* Write down the terminations of the Third Declension.

Decline Homo, G. homin-is, man; Rex, G. reg-is, king; Amor, G. amor-is, love; Clades, G. clad-is, hurt; Civis, G. civ-is, citizen.

What is the rule for the G. P.? Give exceptions.

Decline Mons, G. mont-is, mountain; Urbs, G. urb-is, city; Mater, G. matr-is, mother; Canis, G. can-is, dog. Also Opus, G. oper-is, work; Caput, G. capit-is, head; Animal, G. animal-is, animal.

4. *Fourth.* Write down the terminations of the Fourth Declension.

Decline Currus, G. curr-ūs, car; Specus, G. spec-ūs, cave; Tribus, G. trib-ūs, tribe; Genu, knee; Taurus.

5. *Fifth.* Write down the terminations of the Fifth Declension.

Decline Res, G. rei, thing; Dies, G. di-ei, day; Fides, G. fid-ei, faith; Nubes.

6. *Declining. What?* What is a Noun? What is an Object? What do you mean by Declining a noun? What is the root of a Latin noun?

Write down twenty English nouns; adding, after each, your reason for considering it to be a noun.

7. *How?* How is a noun declined? Give the terminations of the Five Declensions. Why do you not give the terminations of the N. S.? What is the peculiar use of the N. S.? What must be given, before you can decline a noun? Given the N. S. Musa, Laurus, Veru; can you decline the nouns? Given the G. S. Insul-æ, Astr-i, Hæred-is, Speci-ei, can you tell the N. S.? Why or why not?

8. *Why?* Why is a noun declined? What are Cases? What are Numbers?

9. *Examples.* Decline Agricola[1], Ager, Avis, Ætas, Athenæ, Aurum, Dux, Arbor, Veii, Equus, Flos, Fons, Febris, Ictus, Labor, Leo, Vir, Vulnus. Give the D. S. and G. and A. P. of Caper, Carmen, Catena, Cohors, Hæres, Verbum.

II.

On the Form of the Adjective.

1. *Classes.* WHAT is an Adjective? Write down twenty English adjectives. Join each to a noun; and say why the adjective is an adjective, and the noun a noun. What forms do Latin Adjectives pass through? Into what two Classes may they be divided?

2. *First.* How many terminations have adjectives of the First Class to denote gender? Decline Dur-us, G. i, hard; Miser, G. miser-i, wretched; Dexter, G. dextr-i, right. Decline together Malus puer, bad boy; Pulchra puella, fair girl; Justum opus, just work.

3. *Second.* How many terminations have adjectives of the Second Class to denote gender? Decline Suav-is, G. is, sweet; Mit-is, G. is, mild. If an adjective of this class ends in *er*, how many terminations has it in the N. S. to denote gender? If neither in *is* nor *er*, how many? When does it increase in the G. case? Decline Salùber, G. salùbr-is, healthful; Atrox, G. atroc-is, stern. Decline together Ingens taurus, Vetus res, Suave os. Give a reason for the G. P. of each.

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[1] You must look out these words in the Vocabulary.

Decline Solus, Uter, and Alius. Decline together Nullus lapis, Una facies, Ullum animal. 4. *Third.*

How is an adjective declined? Give the set of terminations for each Class. What is the sign by which the class of an adjective is known? What form of the adjective names the adjective? What must be given before you can decline an adjective? 5. *Declining.*

What is meant by Degrees of Comparison? What is the difference between the Comparative and Superlative? How are they generally formed in Latin? How, if the adjective ends in *er*, or *ilis*? Decline Durior and Durissimus. Give some irregular formations, both in Latin and English. 6. *Comparison.*

What is meant by Numerals, Cardinals, and Ordinals? Write down Cardinals and Ordinals for twelve places, affixing to each one of the nouns you have already met with. 7. *Numerals.*

III.

On the Form of the Pronoun.

WHAT is a Pronoun? Explain its use. 1. *Pronoun.*

What are the Personal Pronouns in English? Which of these is wanting in Latin? Why are they called Personal? What is meant by Persons? In what order do they stand? Decline each of the Personal Pronouns (both in Latin and English). 2. *Personal.*

Write down the Latin Possessives; and decline them, each with a noun attached. Why are they called Possessives? How are they connected with the Personal Pronouns? 3. *Possessive.*

Decline the Latin Demonstratives; each with a noun attached. Why are they called Demonstrative? Give the exact meaning of each. In what do they differ from Adjectives? 4. *Demonstrative.*

Decline the Relative in Latin. What is the difference in form, when it is used interrogatively? 5. *Relative.*

IV.

On the Form of the Verb.

WHAT is a Verb? What does it express which an adjective cannot? What are Persons, Numbers, Tenses, Moods? 1. *Forms.*

2. *Conjugation.* Into how many Classes are verbs divided? What are they called? What is the sign of each?

3. *First.* Conjugate Port-o, are, carry; Cant o, are, sing; Laud-o, are, praise; Ædific-o, are, build. Give the 2nd Person, Plural Number, of all the Tenses of Ambul-o, are, walk. Give the 2nd P. Imperative, and the 1st P. perfect and pluperfect subjunctive of Salt-o, are, dance; Clam-o, are, cry; Culp-o, are, blame.

4. *Conjugating.* How is a verb conjugated? What is the root of a verb? What must you know before you can conjugate a verb? In the First Conjugation how do you form the Present, Imperfect, and Future Tenses of the Indicative Mood; and the Pres. and Imp. of the Subjunctive?

How is the Perfect regularly formed? What tenses are formed from the perfect? How are they formed?

5. *First.* Conjugate Sec-o, are, ui, cut; Sto, stare, steti, stand. Give the 3rd P. perf. and plup. subjunctive of Fric-o, are, ui, rub; Jŭv-o, are, jūvi, help. Give the perf. infinitive of Mic-o, are, ui, shine; Do, dare, dedi, give, In what tenses do these verbs differ from Regular verbs? Lăv-o, are, lāvi, meaning Wash, what is the Latin of We had washed?

6. *English Verb.* What great difference is there between the English and Latin verb? What are the forms now used in the pres. ind. of the English verb? What antique forms are there? Translate Cantas, Cantat, and Cantatis, into antique and modern English. How is the want of forms supplied?

7. *Pronoun.* Why is a pronoun required before a verb in English and not in Latin? Why is a pronoun for the third person necessary in English?

8. *Moods and Tenses.* How many Moods are there in Latin? How many Tenses? Give the force of each.

9. *English Verbs.* Give the simple forms of the verbs Hate, Walk, Act, Watch, Beg. What results from the paucity of forms in English? What three forms are used with Auxiliaries to make up the Compounds? What do you mean by Auxiliaries? Conjugate those used in English.

10. *Ditto.* Conjugate the verb Walk according to the Latin standard of moods and tenses, putting down under each as many corresponding English compounds as you can.

Give the simple forms of the verbs Move, Go, Begin, Shine, See, Stand, Marry, Bring, Quarrel, Fill, Run. 11. *Ditto.*

What is the sign of the Second Conjugation in Latin? If Moneo resembled Amo in its perfect as much as in its other tenses what would the perfect be? Conjugate Doc-eo, ēre, teach; Par-eo, ēre, obey; Hab-eo, ēre, have. Write down the terminations of the tenses not formed from the perfect. Give the 1st S. perf. and plup. subj. of Misc-eo, ēre, mix; Laudo; Sto; Nit-eo, ēre, shine; Car-eo, ēre, want. 12. *Second Conjugation.*

What is the regular termination of the perfect? Conjugate Ard-eo, ēre, arsi, burn; Jub-eo, ēre, jussi, order; Neo, nēre, nevi, spin. Give the 2nd and 3rd P. perf. and plup. ind. of Do; Porto; Mŏv-eo, ēre, mōvi, move; Făv-eo, ēre, fāvi, favour. 13. *Ditto.*

What is the sign of the Third Conjugation? In what does the Third differ from the other conjugations? Conjugate Teg-o, ĕre, texi, cover; Dic-o, ĕre, dixi, say; Vinc-o, ĕre, vici, conquer; Lud-o, ĕre, lusi, play; Can-o, ĕre, cecini, sing; Colo, ĕre, colui, cultivate; Cap-io, ĕre, cepi, take; Jacio, ĕre, jeci, cast. 14. *Third.*

Conjugate Dorm-io, ire, sleep; Len-io, ire, soothe; Vinc-io, ire, vinxi, bind; Juvo; Mico; Sent-io, ire, sensi, feel; Sum, esse, fui, &c. 15. *Fourth.*

In what point do the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations resemble one another, as compared with the Third? How does each of the three vary from the other two? What strong, but concealed, resemblance is there between all four? What tenses have the same terminations in all? 16. *Conjugating.*

Give the Imperative and Gerunds, and 2nd and 3rd P. pres. and imp. subj. of the verbs mentioned in this Exercise which you have not already conjugated. 17. *Ditto.*

V.

On the form of the Verb (continued).

What do you mean by Voices? Conjugate Porto, Culpo, Laudo in the Passive Voice. What is the great want in the Passive Voice? How is this want supplied? Name the tenses in the Active Voice that are wanting in the Passive, and the 1. *Passive. First Conjugation.*

Passive Compound answering to each. What does the Passive Compound shew that the Active tense cannot? Turn into Latin: The man will be praised. The boy is being carried. We shall be loved. The house was being built. The girl was praised. The houses had been built. The boys were blamed. Thou wast loved. You have been praised. Translate Laudare in three different ways.

2. *Second, Third, and Fourth.* Conjugate Habeo, Tego, and Lenio in the Passive. Give the simple tenses of Doceo, Vinco, Capio, and Vincio. Turn into Latin, The king was conquered. The earth will be covered. The boy will be heard. Thou wast being soothed. The head is being bound. Fields were being ploughed. We are moved. Cares are driven away. Temples had been destroyed. Be soothed. Bows were bent. Let the boys be sent. I shall be taught. Girls were taught. Give the 2. and 3., S. and P., Pres. and Imp., Sub. Pass. of Mitto, Teneo, Aro, Tracto, Terreo, Munio, Flecto.

3. *Perfect Participle.* What part of the verb is used in compounds? How is it formed in the vowel Conjugations? In which is the characteristic vowel preserved? The characteristic vowel is preserved in the second in the verb Fleo: what then is the Perf. Act. and the Pass. Part.? Is this a common formation? Taking Rego as an Example of the Third or Consonant Conjugation, how are the Perf. Act. and Pass. Part. formed? Write down all the verbs you remember that are formed in the same way, tracing the changes which the final consonants of the roots undergo. Shew a point of resemblance between the Four Conjugations in these formations. What Parts of the Active Voice are formed from the Passive Participle?

4. *Conjugating.* Given a verb, and its infinitive mood, how are you to conjugate it in the simple tenses? Name these tenses. What exception ought you to make? Turn into Latin, Thou wast being taken. The city will be taken. We are taken. Kings are taken. Conjugate Jacio, jac-ĕre, cast, and Rapio, rap-ĕre, snatch.

5. *Compounds.* What did we notice as resulting from the paucity of simple forms in the English Active Verb? How does the same result appear in the Latin Passive? Conjugate the verbs Secor, Jubeor, Flector, Vincior; giving both the usual and less usual compounds for the Perfect, &c. Tenses.

What is the only simple form in the English Passive? Explain the use of this form in the Active. Name a few Latin Participles which are used in the same way. Translate, I have comprehended the art. What is the auxiliary required in English for every Passive Compound? Go through all the English Compounds answering to the forms and Compounds of Amor. 6. *English.*

What is the peculiarity of the Latin verbs called Deponent? Conjugate Adul-or, ari, flatter; Fat-eor, eri, fassus, confess; Patior, pat-i, passus, suffer; Exper-ior, iri, expertus, try; Morior, mor-i, mortuus, die. What English Compound is there which a Latin verb, if Deponent, can express by a simple form, but which a common Active verb cannot? 7. *Deponent.*

Possum is an abridged form of Potis sum.. Leaving out the syllable *is*, go through Sum with the syllable *pot* prefixed, as Pot-sum: and place under each Compound the softened form, as Possum, when there is one. Go through Volo with the adverb Non prefixed, as Non-volo; and place under each compound the abridged form as Nolo, when there is one. Conjugate Malo, Fero, Feror, Eo, Edo, and Fio. 8. *Irregular.*

VI.

On the Adverb, &c.

What do you mean by Declinable? Name the Declinable and Indeclinable Parts of Speech. 1. *Declining.*

What is an Adverb? Into what classes are Adverbs generally divided? How are Adverbs of Manner generally formed? From what Part of Speech are they generally formed? How does it happen that they are sometimes formed from Nouns? Give instances of each of the other Classes of Adverbs. 2. *Adverb.*

How do Adverbs change their form to denote Comparison? How do they denote Comparison, when they do not change their form? 3. *Comparison.*

What is a Preposition? Are Prepositions most used in English or in Latin? How is the connexion between objects denoted in Latin, which is denoted in English by Prepositions placed before their nouns? Before what Cases in Latin do Prepositions stand? Write down a few Prepositions, with the Cases before which they stand. 4. *Preposition.*

5. *Conjunction.* What is a Conjunction? How may Conjunctions be distinguished? Explain the distinction.

6. *Interjection.* What is an Interjection? Why is it so called?

VII.

On the Use of Words.

1. *Sentence.* WHAT Parts of Speech are required to form the shortest sentence? Form twelve such sentences in English, parsing each word. What is Parsing?

2. *Subject-word.* What is the Subject of the Sentence? What is the Subject-word? What is the rule for the N. case? What is the difference between Object and Subject? What is the First Concord? Explain it.

3. *Latin Sentence.* How are you to deal with the words in a Latin sentence? What forms of the Noun, Adjective, and Verb, are given in the Vocabulary?

4. *Nominative.* Translate and parse the following sentences; giving the English words derived from the Latin.

a. Ego canto. Tu rides. Dominus currit. Nos ambulamus. Vos splendetis. Pueri veniunt.

b. Sto. Stabam. Stellæ micant. Puer stabat. Puella saltat. Homines algebant. Algebatis. Luna lucebat. Ardebas. Mœrebam. Lupi currebant. Vaccæ mugiebant. Veniebamus. Ardent oculi. Venis. Flebant puellæ. Friges. Volucres canunt. Dormiebamus. Canebatis. Terra tremebat.

c. Stabo. Curram. Curretis. Stabimus. Sol splendebit. Veniet hora. Manebimus. Dormient reges. Mugiunt vaccæ. Virgines saltabunt. Pueri ridebunt. Canes. Concidet domus[i]. Pauperies abest[ii]. Rex aberit. Aberamus. Venitis. Dormiemus. Saltabitis. Desunt amici.

d. Cantavi. Dolui. Dormivi. Leones fremuerunt. Stetisti. Sol luxit. Avis cecinit. Ego ambulavi, tu cucurristi. Nos cucurrimus, vos equitavistis. Prandimus. Milites venere. Mansistis. Gladii micuerunt. Absumus. Deerit voluntas. Abestis. Ambulavimus. Miles friguit. Boves mugierunt[iii]. Homines vixerunt.

e. Ambulaveram. Cantavero. Riseris. Puer steterat. Veneramus[iv]. Sol descenderat. Canes latraverant. Pomum ceciderat. Luna fulserat. Ætas fugerat. Fugiemus. Fugitis. Lupi cucurrerant. Fugiebant milites. Dolueramus. Avis cecinerit. Fŭgimus.

Sta. Mane. Puer venito. Cantate. Milites pugnanto. Surge. Descende. Silete. Currite. Puellæ dormiunto. Venito. Clamor abesto. Montes tremunto. *f.*

In the above sentences, supply the Subject-word, where it is wanting. *g.*

I walk. You sing. The doctor comes. We stand. You (pl.) dance. The boys ride. The girls were sleeping. Oxen were lowing. Swords were gleaming. The soldiers fought. Apples will fall. Time flies. The boy is absent. The girl was absent. The sun will shine. We had been absent. The will is wanting. The boys were come. The king was coming. The sun will be gone down. Dogs were barking. We shall have run. Let the boy rise. Go down. Let the birds sing. I dined; you danced. We will run. You will come. The soldier had walked. *h.*

Notes. i. *Domus.* Domus is an irregular Noun of the Fourth Declension. It is declined thus:

S. N. and V. Dom-us, G. ūs, D. ui, A. um, Ab. o.
P. N. and V. Dom-ūs, G. uum and orum, A. os, D. and Ab. ibus.

Hence the following memorial line

Tolle *me, mu, mi, mis,* si declinare *domus* vis.

ii. From Absum, a compound of Ab, from, and Sum.

iii. See IV. 18. b.

iv. We were come. The verbs Come and Go take the auxiliary Be instead of Have.

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5. *Transitive Verbs. Accusative.* a. What is the difference between Transitive and Intransitive Verbs? Write down a dozen of each in English. Form the former into as many sentences, by adding to each a Subject-word, and a word naming the Object acted on directly by the Subject (S. W. and A. D. W.). In what case will the S. W. be in Latin? In what will the A. D. W. be? Take any of the Latin Nouns (or pronouns) you have already met with, and form them into twelve sentences of this sort by inserting any of the following Transitive verbs—Amo, Rego, Illumino, Voro, Video.

Translate and parse the following sentences: *b.*

Romulus condidit Romam. Scipio Carthaginem delevit. Brutus Cæsarem occidit. Virgo domuit monstrum. Pastor pecus egit. Pater faciebat arma. Filius araverat agros. Puer flexerat arcus. Vidimus Tiberim[i]. Fluvius dejecit templa. Jupiter terruit gentes. Scelus expiâsti[ii]. Trahunt machinæ carinas. Pellite curas. Nox tegebat terram. Mors rapiet gentes. Aqua fluxit. Pœni Romanos vicerunt. Arbor amittet folia. Peccavisti. Medicus sedaverat puellam. Te laudo.

c. The king bends his bow. Death drives away cares. You are taming monsters. We had tamed the boy. The boy was killing the girl. The Romans were ploughing the fields. The Carthaginians had thrown down temples. The earth will tremble. I saw the herds. You will make arms. Trees lost their leaves. Swords terrify shepherds. I have founded, you have destroyed Carthage. You praised me. Doctors had killed the boy. We shall have expiated our crime. You will have laughed. The boy was driving cows. Bend your bows. Let the soldiers drag down the keels. We shall lose our bows.

Notes.

i. See I. 17. e.

ii. Contracted form of Expiavisti. *Avis* is sometimes contracted into *as;* as amâsti, amâsse: *Aver* into *ar;* as amârunt, amâram.

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6. *Transitive Verbs. Accusative and Dative.* *a.* What is the difference between an object being acted on directly and indirectly? In what case is the word which names the latter (A. I. W.) put? Is there any such case in English? If not, how do you express that an object is placed in such circumstances? Write down some English sentences containing nouns, which would be put in Latin into the D. case. Take the verb Do; and with the nouns you have already had, form twelve Latin sentences. Let each sentence contain an A. I. W. as well as A. D. W. and S. W.; and a different form of the verb Do.

b. Translate and parse:

Nauta ratem pelago[i] commisit. Redde nobis Virgilium. Nives terris Jupiter misit. Mittam Carthagini nuntios. Prometheus ignem gentibus intulit. Terrorem Jovi monstra intulerant. Fata Romanis dico. Deus cœlum hominibus recludit. Fratres montem monti[ii] imposuerunt. Flagitio additis damnum. Cæsar Britannos imperio adjecit (Did he?). Pœni signa delubris affixerunt. Pœni arma militibus deripuerunt. Sol juga bobus[iii] demit[iv]. Filius patri maturat necem. Voveram Jovi caprum. Puer negotium confecerat.

Notes.

i. Pelagus is one of the few neuter nouns, of the 2nd D., ending in *us*.

ii. This sentence distinguishes the case well. The mountain *moved* has its noun in the A.; the mountain not moved, but affected by the moving (for it receives a great burden as the result of the moving) has its noun in the D.

iii. *Bos.* Bos, bov-is, ox, has the G. P. contracted from Bovum into Boum; and the D. and Ab. P. from Bovibus into Bobus, as here, and sometimes into Bubus.

iv. *Verbs of Depriving.* If I take a thing from an object, the object is not moved or changed; but it is affected by the loss; I act upon it indirectly; and therefore its noun is in the D. case; just like the noun of an object which is mentioned as receiving anything. Both loser and receiver stand still; I act; the object taken away or given is moved.

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7. *Intransitive Verbs. Dative.*

a. Can you see any difference between such a verb as Carry and Obey? How do they both differ from such a verb as Walk? What case in Latin comes after such a verb as Obey? Is Pareo Transitive or Intransitive? Why?

Translate:

b. Terris incubuere febres. Mors nemini parcit. Livia nupsit[i] Augusto. Augustus duxit Liviam. Pater indulgebit filio. Puella mihi nitet[ii]. Filius paruit patri. Ignosce mihi. Nautis stella refulsit. Vacabo[iii] philosophiæ. Serviam tibi. Virtus dissidet plebi. Nemo invidet mihi. Placebo puellæ.

c. Est[iv] mihi liber. Sunt tibi canes. Miles interfuit prælio. Medicus proderit[v] puero. Canities abest tibi. Prosumus amicis. Prodestis mihi. Homini defuit voluntas. Spiritus inest verbis. Juvenes tibi somnos adimunt. Sanguis redierat imagini. Medo nectis catenas. Matri hærebat puer. Hostis pepercit aris. Pater laudabit filium. Mater culpavit filiam. Dux moverat castra. Promiseram Caio donum. Puella animam recepit.

d I will entrust barks to the sea. I will give my son a bow. The physician spared the girl. The father had taken away the book from his son. The girl will marry the shepherd. You have married Caia. I will obey my father. You will serve the soldier. I have sons. You had arms. The soldiers spared the sailor. Caius will have friends. The monster brings terror on the girls. The shepherd adds oxen to oxen. Terror deprives[vi] me of sleep. Sleep does me good. The general will do good to his soldiers. The boy will fail his friends. I envy no one. The boy devotes himself to the girl.

Notes. i. *Nubo.* Nubere means, To put on a veil. At a Roman wedding, the bride put on a bright yellow veil, called flammeum; and, this veiling being so important, Nubere came to mean, Putting on the bridal veil in particular. Thus, Caia nubit, means, Caia puts on the bridal veil. In doing this, Caia performs an action, which does not pass on to any other object, moving or changing it; but an action which concerns some other object. Who is affected by her putting on the bridal veil? Who is acted on indirectly by Caia? Clearly the bridegroom. Therefore his noun is in the D. case, and the sentence becomes, Caia nubit Caio.

By thus investigating the origin and idea of a Verb, you will generally discover why certain verbs in Latin are followed by a D. case, while their equivalents in English are followed by the A., as Parce mihi, Spare me. But the first thing you must do is to note down such verbs and carefully remember them; then try to discover the reason.

ii. *Niteo.* Perhaps you may wonder why such a verb as *Niteo* should take a case at all. There seems so little difference, in respect of acting on other objects, between Shine and Walk. But if the girl shines, she takes care that some one shall see her shining. She displays her charms. Who receives them? Who is affected by the display? I am. Therefore Ego is in the D. case.

iii. *Vaco.* So *Vaco* means, I am free—from business. If then I am free from all other pursuits, I have time for one particular pursuit; and on that pursuit I act indirectly, for it receives the result of my being free; that is, my whole attention. Hence Vaco, with a D. case after it, means, I pay attention to, I study.

To go back for one moment to Nubo. The difference of case shews you the view which the Romans took of marriage. We say indifferently, The man marries the woman, or, The woman marries the man. But the Roman says, Caia nubit Caio; Caius ducit Caiam, or in full, Caius Caiam ducit uxorem. That is, the woman acts only indirectly on the man; but the man acts directly on the woman. He leads her as his wife; moving her from her father's house to his; changing her from her old condition, of filial, to her new condition, of conjugal subjection.

iv. *Sum.* Est means, Exists. Who is affected by a book existing? I am, if it belongs to me. Ego therefore is in the D. case. And Est mihi liber, means, A book belongs to me, or I have a book. And all verbs compounded of Sum, except Possum, are followed by a Dative, for they denote an action in which an object is concerned, not an action by which an object is changed.

v. *Prosum.* Observe, in conjugating Pro-sum, that the letter *d* is inserted before the form of Sum when it begins with a vowel; as Pro-sum, Prod-es, Prod-esse. Prosum means, I am for (the use of); do good to; profit. Desum, I am down from; wanting to; fail. Absum, I am away from. Intersum, I am among; engaged in.

vi. You have not yet met with the word Deprive. But try to change the form of the sentence, without altering its sense, so as to introduce a word which you have met with. And do this always when you meet with a strange word.

8. *Genitive and Ablative.* *a.* Why is a noun put in the G., the V., or the Ab. case? In parsing the following sentences, notice particularly *how* the object, whose noun is in the Ab., is mentioned as accompanying the action of the subject. Is it mentioned as the *time* or *place* at which the action is performed; the *manner* in which, the *cause* for which, or the *instrument* by which, the action is performed? There will be many other reasons why a noun should be in the Ab.; for there are so many ways in which an object may be mentioned as helping, or explaining, or telling something more about, or in some sort accompanying the action of another.

b. Belli causas tracto. Fulgor armorum terret equos. Flexi arcum manu. Pellite curas vino. Causa morbi fugit corpore. Tu, Mercuri, cultus hominum voce firmasti. Argento color est, Crispe Sallusti. Româ puerum misi. Domum Neapoli ædificavi. Dente leonis caprea periit. Crœsus regnavit Sardibus. Athenis vacavi philosophiæ. Auctumno carpite poma. Caput puella vinciebat floribus. Carmine dolorem pueri leniam. Puerum manu cepi.

c. The fire terrified the shepherd's horses. The son of Caius married the daughter of Caia. The soldier had spared the sailor's son. The daughter of the shepherd was plucking apples with her hand. The arms of the soldiers will terrify the horses with their flash. The mother had taken her daughter by the hand.

9. *Adjective as Epithet.* *a.* What is an Adjective? What is the Second Concord? Explain it. How are you to deal with a word which you suppose to be an adjective? How many different forms of words are there ending in *es*? How many ending in *is*? Is there any difference between the gender of a noun and the gender of an adjective? In English, how do we regard objects, in respect of sex? How do we regard nouns, in respect of gender? How did the ancients regard objects and nouns in this respect? How is the gender of a Latin noun ascertained? Define the genders of an Adjective; the gender of a noun. Which is the more correct expression? What is meant by a noun being of Common gender? Do any nouns shew by their form the supposed sex of the objects named by them? Mention those, of the nouns you have already met with, which do this: that is, those of which you at once know the gender. Remember, in parsing,

to shew the difference between the gender of a noun and of an adjective by some such method as that we have adopted in the Examples: as,

Flavum. Adjective; A. S. m.; from Flav-us, G. i; yellow.

Tiberim. Noun P.; A. S.; from Tiberis, G. Tiber-is; m.; Tiber.

b. Translate, &c.

Vidimus flavum Tiberim. Virgilium mihi redde incolumem. Nauta truci pelago fragilem ratem commisit. Prometheus ignem fraude malâ gentibus intulit. Nova febrium cohors terris incubuit. Nitidum caput viridi myrto impediam. Filius patrem[i] iratum fugit. Aquosus languor albo corpore[i] fugiet. Tu, facunde Mercuri, feros cultus hominum recentium voce formasti. Tu, gentis humanæ pater, gravi curru quaties Olympum.

c. Quartâ horâ excedimus urbe. Me revocas nono mense. Talento[ii] inimicum mihi emi, amicum vendidi. Patriam auro vendidi. Tu spem reducis mentibus anxiis. Horrida callidi vincunt æquora navitæ[iii]. Age, te procellæ crede veloci. Scandit æratas vitiosa naves cura. Dux militum virtute vicerat hostes. Puer sextum ætatis annum explevit.

d. The soldier bought a beautiful horse for a talent. The doctor has seen the white body of the boy. The heavy car of Jupiter shook Olympus. I conquered the enemy by valour. I will sell my country for gold. The father of the human race brought great terror on the earth. Terror brooded over the soldiers. The sun illuminates the dreadful sea. The fierce sailors bound with flowers their brazen-beaked ship.

Notes.
i.
Fugio.

Observe that a noun is put in the A. after Fugio, as well as in the Ab. The latter is perhaps the simpler construction. If you say, An object (Languor, for instance) flees, you form a sentence; but the sentence will be more satisfactory, if you mention the object from which it flees, as an accompanying object; as telling something more about the action of Languor. This latter object therefore will have its noun in the Ab., as Corpore. But this same object may be regarded differently. It may be regarded as acted on by the fleeing object, as deserted by it, as changed from a condition of companionship to one of solitude: and therefore its noun will be in the A., as Patrem. This example, and you will meet with many like it, may serve to shew, that you must not expect always to distinguish precisely between a Transitive and Intransitive verb. Fugio, originally Intransitive and signifying Flee, when it requires no noun after it, comes to be Transitive and signify Flee from, escape; when it *requires* a noun after it in the A.

ii. It is enough to say, I bought myself an enemy. If I mention the price at which I bought him, I mention it as an object accompanying the action of buying, and therefore its noun is in the Ab. In fact the price may be considered the Instrument. A talent was the instrument of purchase. Remember therefore that the noun naming the *Price*, at which an object is bought, is in the Ab. case.

iii. Navita (from Navis, ship); Ship-man, sailor; is generally contracted into Nauta, but often preserves its full form in poetry.

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10. *Adjective as Predicate.* *a.* In the sentence, Bonus puer currit, the Adjective Bonus is called an Epithet. What is it called in such a sentence as Puer est bonus? Why? How must the word Est be regarded?

Translate and parse,

b. Ego sum piger. Tu es pulchra. Nauta est callidus. Nos sumus incolumes. Vos estis tristes. Arva sunt fœcunda. Puer mihi[i] gratus est. Puella mihi placet. Simplex cibus utilis est pueris. Medicina ægro homini est salutaris. Adulatio tibi nocebit. Filius erit patri similis. Grata erat testudo dapibus supremi Jovis. Damnosus pecori fluvius currit, damnosior agris.

c. Sol clarior est lunâ[ii]. Argentum levius est auro. Hieme dies sunt breviores noctibus. Veni, matre pulchrâ filia pulchrior. Vilius argentum est auro, virtutibus aurum. Augustus te minor latum reget æquus orbem.

d. Atheniensium[iii] Aristides fuit justissimus. Caia est omnium puellarum pulcherrima. Simplex cibus ægro est corpori utilissimus[iv]. Canis simillimus[iv] est lupo. Sol clarissimâ luce totum illuminat orbem.

e. The girl is very beautiful. Medicine is good for you. Flattery hurts children. The moon is not brighter than the sun. The nights are shorter than the days. The physician gave medicine to the sick man. You please me. You are pleasing to me. Winter is hurtful to cattle. The mother is more beautiful than the daughter. You are of all men the shortest. You are shorter than I. I am like you. Food is better than medicine. The earth is less than the sun.

f. What sort of Adjectives are followed by nouns in the D. case, and why? Name some. What case is used after the Comparative form of an adjective? What other construction may be used? Use this construction in the above comparative sentences. What case is used after Superlatives? Why? What is the case of the noun which names the *price*?

Notes. i. Conceiving, as we do, that there is no real difference between the adjective and verb; that every quality is more or less active; but that the verb, being more fitted by its form to denote action, is used exclusively to denote those qualities that are more prominently active; while the adjective is used, as well as the verb, to denote those qualities which are less prominently active; we shall of course expect to find certain adjectives followed by the D. case, just like the Intransitive verbs which we have lately been considering. Adjectives are not used (except as participles) to denote actions, which pass on directly to objects, so as to move or change them; and therefore they do not take the A. case after them. But they are used to denote actions, by which objects are affected or influenced; and therefore they do take the D. after them. The boy is pleasant to me. Who is affected by his being pleasant? I am. On whom does the boy *act indirectly* by being pleasant? On me. Therefore Ego is in the D. after Gratus, just as it is after Placeo. This result follows so obviously from the view we have taken both of the D. case and of Adjectives, that I shall say no more about adjectives taking the D. after them; considering it the natural case for them to take, whenever they denote a quality, by which an object may be influenced or affected. But we shall have to explain, why certain adjectives are followed by the G. and Ab. case.

ii. *Rule for Comparatives.* The sun is brighter than the moon. The moon is mentioned as accompanying the sun; telling something about its superior brightness; and therefore its noun is in the Ab. case. Remember therefore, as a Rule,

The Ablative is used after the Comparative form of an Adjective.

There is another construction for the Comparative in Latin. You can say, Sol clarior est quam Luna; making two sentences instead of one, as we do in English. The sun is brighter than the moon (is bright). The two sentences are joined together by the Conjunction Quam, and each has a distinct construction of its own. Sol is S. W. in one, Luna in the other; Est is the verb in each.

iii. The Athenians possessed Aristides as one of their just men, and therefore their noun is in the G. case. Hence, generally, the Superlative is followed by a Genitive.

iv. See II. 12. c. The dog is very like the wolf: the Superlative implying that the object possesses the quality in a great degree.

VIII.

On the Use of Words.

1. *Parsing.* WHAT four Forms must be given in parsing a Verb? and why must they be given? Parse Absolvo, Cædo, Do, Facio, Flecto, Infligo, Pingo, Tego, Reddo, Fero, Claudo, Demo,

Vincio, Aperio: giving, as always, all the English derivatives you can think of.

2. *Agreement.* *a.* What is the form of the Verb, when there are more Subject-words than one? Which person is named first in Latin? Which second? How does the English use differ in this respect from the Latin? Translate: You and I dance. The king and I sang. The king and you ran. You and I are happy. The boy and girl died. You, Balbus, and the girl were happy. The man and woman are good.

b. When an adjective is joined to nouns of different gender, with which does it agree in gender? In what number is it? In what case? When is it in the n. gender? When may adjectives be used without nouns? Can English adjectives be used thus? What is the reason of the difference? Translate: Fortes creantur fortibus et bonis. Surdus non audit. Hostis omnia nostra abstulit. Debes multa mihi. Bonæ amant maritos. Rex omnes bonos ex civitate pellit. Caius et Caia pulchrâ matre nati sunt. Præterita non possumus mutare.

3. *Conjoining Conjunctions.* Mention six different ways for coupling together words. What is there peculiar in the use of Que? Translate, Cæsar agros ferro et flammâ vastavit. Couple Ferro and Flammâ in the five other ways, noticing the slight variety in the meaning.

4. *Infinitive as S. W.* *a.* What is a Noun? What is the Infinitive mood? Is an action an object? Shew that it is an object. What then must the Inf. mood be regarded as? What is a good way of testing an object?

b. In English, what is the form, and what the Compound, for the Inf. mood of the verb Sleep? Parse, Sleeping is sweet. For what other part of the verb does the form Sleeping stand? How can you account for the pronoun It in the sentence, It is sweet to sleep? How must you deal with an English sentence before turning it into Latin? How do you turn into Latin such phrases as, It is the duty or part of, It is a sign of, &c.?

c. Translate and parse,

Humanum est irasci[1]. Turpe est timere dolorem. Christiani est amare virtutem. Adolescentis est parentes revereri[1]. Boni civis est parere legibus. Regis est imperare. Meum est imperare, parere tuum. Imbecilli est animi cedere fortunæ. Impium est mentiri.

d. It is disgraceful to tell a lie. It is a great thing not to fear death. It is your business to command, mine to obey. It is the duty of a good citizen to love the king. It is the duty of a Christian to obey the laws. It is the slave's business to carry the boy. It is the sign of a weak mind to fear pain.

e. Form six Latin sentences having a verb in the Inf. as S. W., and translate them. Form six English sentences, which should be translated into Latin sentences having the Inf. as S. W., and translate them.

Notes. i. Notice that Deponent, like other verbs, can be either Transitive or Intransitive.

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5. *Place and Time.* *a.* What is the case of the noun that names the Place, *to* which motion is directed, *from* which motion is directed, *at* which an action is performed? Give the reason for each. What is the case of the noun that names the Time, *at* which and *during* which an action is performed? Give the reasons. Parse and translate,

b. Misi nuntios Carthaginem. Caius ivit Romam. Horatius venit Philippos. Miseram filium Româ. Servus Carthagine fugit. Puer natus est Capuæ; vixit Tibure; mortuus est Veiis. Solon Sardes venit. Vixi quatuor annos Sardibus. Caius decimo ætatis anno Româ profectus est. Senex non omnes annos amabilem puerum plorabit. Vere diffugiunt nives.

c. I sent messengers from Rome to Capua. The slave fled to Carthage. The boy lived ten years at Rome. I was born at Tarentum. I shall die at Carthage. Caius will have lived six years at Veii. I set out from Rome and came to Carthage. The boy was born at Tibur, and lived at Capua, and died at Sardis in the tenth year of his age. Apples fall in autumn. The girl slept the whole night. I shall mourn you all my life.

6. *Double Accusative.* Translate and parse,

a. Docui puerum musicam. Pœni Romanos pacem poposcerunt. Caium rogavi sententiam. Puer vitia patrem celavit. Hoc[i] me pater optimus[ii] insuevit. Pater filium illud[i] admonuit. Tu frustra poscis filium Deos. Ranæ regem petierunt Jovem.

b. The father asked the boy for his opinion. The mother taught her daughter music. The Romans demanded peace from the Carthaginians. The girl will conceal her faults from her mother. My excellent father warned me of this. The father had accustomed his son to that. Caius taught his son music. Caius gave his son a book[iii].

Explain how it is that two Accusatives can be used after a verb. What sort of verbs can take them? Compare such verbs with such verbs as Give. c.

Notes.

i. See VIII. 33.

ii. See II. 12. c.

iii. *Teach and Give, compared.* You may perhaps wonder why Teach should not be followed in Latin by a noun in the D. case, as Give is; since in English both verbs are followed by the same construction. But the difference is clear. You can say, Caius teaches his son; conceiving the son as acted on directly by Caius. But you cannot say, Caius gives his son. After Gives, you must name the object given, to make a sentence. After Teach, you need not name the object taught. Since then you can say separately, Caius docet filium, and Caius docet musicam, there can be no reason why you should not combine the two and say, Caius docet filium musicam. For the objects son and music stand in the same relation to the subject Caius, whether mentioned together or separately; and therefore the cases of their nouns are the same.

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7. *Infinitive as A.D.W.*

Parse and translate,

a. Puella cœpit cantare. Desine mirari beatæ fumum et opes strepitumque Romæ. Non possumus ictum sentire. Caius nonvult dare mihi librum. Puer cupit ire Romam. Pueri nolebant Capuæ morari. Ego nec tumultum, nec mori per vim metuam, tenente Cæsare terras. Non est meum ad miseras preces decurrere. Malo mori honeste quam vivere turpiter. Puer est piger[1]. Puer cœpit esse piger[1]. Puer solet esse piger[1]. Ver ibi solet esse longum. Brumæ solent esse tepidæ. Desine matrem sequi.

b. What sort of verbs take the Inf. after them, as a noun in the A. case? Can such verbs as Kill, Eat? Why or why not? Write out the tenses, not formed from the Perfect, of Possum, Nolo, and Malo. When does the same case come after a verb as before it? What sort of verbs admit of this construction?

c. The boy began to dance. Leave off admiring the girl's book. Caius cannot go to Rome. The girl desired to depart from Rome. I wish to die. Thy father does not wish to live. The slave prefers living disgracefully to dying honourably.

Notes.

i. *Copulative Verbs.* In each sentence, Piger, the Predicate (VII. 40), agrees with Puer: for in each, Piger denotes that the object named by Puer possesses a certain quality—that of laziness. It is clear that no verb or verbs intervening between a noun and its adjective Predicate can alter the construction of the adjective. Nor does it make any difference, if the Predicate is a noun. Caius est rex. Caius cœpit esse rex: vult esse rex: creatus est rex. Romani appellati sunt Quirites.

Animalia fiunt lapides. Ego factus sum rex. Rex names the same object as Caius, and under the same circumstances; it is therefore in the same case: and the same holds, if the noun before the verb is in a subordinate case. The word after is in the same case as the word before, if it names the same object under the same circumstances. Thus: Dico puerum esse bonum. Dico puerum velle esse bonum. Dico Caium creatum esse regem.

Sum being the Copula, such verbs as the above have been well called (by Dr Kennedy) Copulative Verbs: as coupling together names of the same object. The Rule then is: Copulative Verbs have the same case before and after.

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8. *Ditto with another Noun.* Translate,

a. Mater docuit puellam saltare. Jussi servum claudere portam. Non patiar tuos tot labores carpere lividas obliviones. Volo te ire[1]. Docebo te philosophiam. Doce me cantare.

b. Considering the Inf. as a noun, in what case does it stand in the above sentences? Shew how both it and the other noun in the sentence are governed. Of what construction is it an example?

c. Bonum virum musa vetat mori. Vidimus flavum Tiberim dejicere monumenta regis. Æquam memento rebus in arduis servare mentem. Da mihi præclaram senectutem degere. Audiimus nautas clamare.

d. I will not allow you to stay at Capua. The father forbad his son to go to Rome. Remember to lead an honest life. Caius had ordered his slaves to carry the books. I saw the slave throw down the table. It is the slave's business to shut the gate. We do not wish Caius to set out.

Notes. i. Both Te and Ire are in the A. after Volo, as naming objects acted on directly by the wishing. Te names the person, Ire the action wished about.

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9. *Sentence after That.* *a.* When an English sentence is joined to a Verb by the Conjunction *That*, how do you turn it into Latin? But what proviso must you make as to the conjunction That?

b. I am glad that the boy sleeps. The father hears that his son is ill. I believe that Jupiter reigns in heaven. You can feel with the hand that fire is hot. I know that you do not wish to go to Rome. The father says that the girl is ill, but that the boy is well.

c. Inclinare meridiem sentis, Audio cives acuere ferrum, Credo esse apibus partem divinæ mentis. Intelligimus impium esse mentiri. Credimus te regis favere rebus. Gaudeo te nolle Roma discedere. Pater nescit filium ægrotare.

d. What is the construction of the Inf. in the above sentences? Does it differ in any way from the construction in Ex. 8? Explain accurately the difference between the English and Latin idiom. Write down Six compound English sentences, each containing two simple sentences, and then turn them into six simple Latin sentences. Can the Compound ever be turned into simple sentences in English? Give three such sentences and turn them into Latin. Translate, I know that the boy is ill: and, I know the boy to be ill. What sort of verbs can take an A. and Inf., or two Accusatives? Does the Inf. name a result in Latin? Does it in English? What does the Inf. name in Latin?

Translate,

10. *Infinitive. Pres. and Perf. tense.*

a. The father says that the boy is ill. The father says that the boy was ill, but now is well. The father said that the boy was ill. The father said that the boy had been ill, but was now well.

b. Split up each of these Compound sentences into Simple sentences, putting down the exact words which the father uses. Give the rule for the Tense of the Inf. in Latin; and explain the difference of construction in the two languages. In which is a simple sentence used, in which a compound?

c. Nego[1] me intelligere. Negas te intelligere. Puer negat se intelligere. Puer dicit se vidisse canem. Nego me vidisse canem. Puella respondit se nunquam saltavisse. Pueri negant se peccavisse. Caius respondit se intelligere. Negavi me velle dormire. Negavistis vos velle ire Romam. Puella dixit fratrem ægrotare. Puer negavit se peccavisse. Respondi me non vidisse canem.

d. Split up each of the above sentences into two, writing down the exact words of the speaker, both in Latin and English. Translate, I said that I did not wish to depart from Rome. You said that you did not understand. You said that you had seen the slave shut the gates. The girl says that her father has been ill. The boy answered that he did not wish to stay at home.

Notes. 1. *Nego.* Who is acted on by my denying? I am. Therefore Me is in the A. case. What is acted on? Understanding. Therefore Intelligere is in the A. case. Translate Nego, I say not. I say that I do not understand. What I say is, Non intelligo, I do not understand.

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11. *Infinitive. Future tense.*

a. Has the Latin Verb any form for the Future Infinitive? What compound does it use for the purpose? Explain the construction of the Compound.

b. Translate and parse,

Spero te mox venturum esse. Credo omnia peritura esse. Scio omnes morituros. Spero puellas esse venturas. Caius sperat uxorem diu victuram. Pater dicit puerum esse venturum. Pater dixit puerum esse venturum[i]. Speravi te diu victurum.

c. Translate the following, both into simple and compound sentences.

Spero me venturum. Promittis te venturum. Puella sperat se diu victuram. Et Caius et uxor promittunt se confecturos esse negotium. Promisi me clausurum portas. Puer simulat[ii] se dormire. Brutus simulavit se furere. Servus recepit se clausurum portas. Puer negavit se venturum.

d. My father hopes that you will come. I believe that the boy will die soon. Caius said that he would come. The boys said[iii] that they would not[iii] come. I hope to see the boy soon. You, O girls, hope to see your father soon. I promise to shut[iv] the gates. You promised to come. Caius pretends to be ill. I pretended[iv] to be asleep. I hoped that I should live long. I hoped to live long. The slave undertook to shut the gates.

e. When the S. W. after That is the same as the S. W. before That, what is the more usual way of turning the English sentence? Explain the use of the Past tense of the Auxiliaries Will, Shall, after That. When the English Inf. denotes a result or purpose, how are you not to translate it? How are you to translate it, when it cannot be turned into a subordinate sentence after That? How, when it can? How, when it denotes a present; how, when it denotes a future, action? Write down two examples of each of the above uses of the English Infinitive, and translate them into Latin.

Notes.

i. *Would, Should, &c. after That.* In English we say, The father said that the boy *would* come. In Latin, with more exactness, the same form is used after the Present Dicit, and the Perfect Dixit: for in each sentence the words of the father are the same; Puer veniet, The boy will come. But in English the verb after That; viz. Would, the past tense of the auxiliary Will; is attracted into the tense of the verb before That, Said: just as in Ex. 10; The father said that the boy *was* ill, &c.

Remember therefore that in such sentences after That, Would or Should is translated into Latin, just as Will or Shall is, by the Fut. Inf.

ii. Quod non est simulo dissimuloque quod est.

iii. Use Nego.

iv. *Way to deal with the English Infinitive.* When you are translating into Latin the Pres. Inf. after a verb, there are three things to be considered. First, Can it be turned into a subordinate sentence after In order that? that is, Does it denote a result or purpose? as, I am come to see you. If so, you must not translate it by the Inf.

Secondly, Can it be turned into a subordinate sentence after That (not In order that)? If it cannot, use the Inf. without a Pronoun. If it can, with a Pronoun. 'I begin to sing.' You cannot say, I begin that I may sing. Therefore translate Cœpi cantare; without a Pronoun. 'I hope to come.' You can say, I hope that I shall come. Therefore translate, Spero *me* venturum esse; with a pronoun. The difference is, that Beginning does not operate on any object besides the action; Hoping does, viz. on the object hoped about, as Boy, You, Myself, &c. Therefore Spero takes an A. beside the Inf. Cœpi does not.

Thirdly, Does it denote a present or a future action? This you will see by turning it, if you can, into a subordinate sentence. I hope to come, becomes I hope that I shall come. The Coming is *future* to the Hoping. Therefore Translate, Spero me venturum esse. I pretend to be asleep, becomes I pretend that I am asleep. The being asleep is *present* with the Pretending, therefore translate, Simulo me dormire. I undertook to shut the gates, becomes I undertook that I would shut the gates. The Shutting was *future* to the undertaking. Therefore translate, Recepi me clausurum esse portas.

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12. *Ablative Absolute.* a. **Explain the exact use of the Ablative case in Latin. What is the meaning of the word Absolute? What of the expression Ablative Absolute? In the following Examples, endeavour to shew that the idea expressed by the Ab. Abs. falls under the general idea of the Ab. case.**

b. Anco regnante, Lucumo, vir[1] impiger, Romam commigravit. Demarati filius erat[ii]; qui, uxore Tarquiniis ductâ, duos filios genuit. Nomina his Lucumo atque Aruns fuerunt. Lucumo superfuit patri, bonorum omnium hæres. Aruns prior[iii], quam pater, moritur, uxore gravidâ relictâ.

c. Nos, te juvante, hostem vincemus. Ancus, novo exercitu conscripto profectus, Politorium, urbem Latinorum, vi cepit. Latini, ab Anco rege victi, pacem Romanos petierunt. Latini, exercitu a Romanis deleto, pacem poposcerunt. Paucis mihi succurrentibus[iv], hosti obviam ibo. Caius, Romæ diu moratus, abiit.

d. Cæsar, having conquered the Gauls, returned to Rome. The Gauls, having been conquered by Cæsar, demanded peace from the Romans. Ancus, having set out from Rome, took Politorium, a city of the Latins. In the reign of Ancus, the Latins were conquered by the Romans. With your help, we shall conquer the Gauls. If only a few help us, we will meet the enemy. Though only a few help us, we shall take the city. The Latins, having lost their army, sued for peace from the Romans. Caius, having stayed three months at Capua, journeyed to Veii, a town of Etruria.

e. How may you translate into Latin the English Compound for the Perfect Active Participle? What sort of Latin verbs have a form for this? Write down three English sentences, which may be translated into Latin, by help of this form; and translate them. Write down six, which cannot be so translated; and translate them.

f. When is a noun said to be in Apposition with another? How far does it agree with its antecedent? Translate, I call Athens the inventor of arts. Veii, a town of Etruria, was taken by the Romans.

Notes. i. *Apposition.* Vir names the same object as Lucumo, and under exactly the same circumstances. It is therefore in the same case. A noun thus joined to another is said to be in *Apposition* with that other, as Antecedent. The noun in Apposition therefore will be in the same *case* as the Antecedent: for nothing is mentioned as affecting the object when named by it, which does not also affect the object when named by the Antecedent.

It should be in the same *number*. But if the Antecedent is a Plural noun, naming a single object, then the noun in Apposition will generally be in the S. number: as, Athenæ, urbs Græciæ, capta est. Veii, oppidum Etruriæ, concrematum est. But, Athenæ, inventrices artium, adhuc florent.

It cannot always be of the same gender. But it should be, if it has a feminine form: as, Philosophia, magistra morum. Athenæ, inventrices artium.

ii. The S. W. to erat is Lucumo, understood from the former sentence.

iii. *Prior.* Prior means, Former, earlier. It is an adjective, Comparative in form, but having no Positive. Primus, first, is the Superlative. They are formed from the Preposition Præ, before.

iv. This may be translated, either, 'If only a few help me,' or, 'Though only a few help me.' Either way, the expression tells something as to the cause or manner of my facing the enemy.

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13. *Preposition.* a. What is a Preposition? When naming in Latin the Place *to* which, or *from* which motion is directed; or the Place, *in* or *at* which an action is performed; before what sort of nouns would you place Prepositions? before what sort would you not?

b. Translate,

Caius came from Rome to Greece. Caius journeyed from Italy to Athens. My father returned home from Cyprus. The queen went forth from her chamber into the field. My son is come back from the country. I hope soon to go into the country. I wish to go to Rhodes. My son is gone from home. The queen was sitting in her chamber. The horse stands in his stall. My father lived four years in Cyprus. Cæsar carried on war for ten years in Gaul. My mother taught me music at home. My father prefers living in the country.

c. The bull lies in the field. The farmer leads the bull into the field. The apples lie under the tree. I threw the apples under the tree. It is a glorious thing to die for our country. Give me that book. Caius gave his son a horse. The boy struck the slave with a stick. The father came out of the house with his son.

d. Before what Cases are Prepositions placed in Latin? When the same Preposition is placed before two Cases, explain accurately the difference of meaning. To what is this difference owing? When do you translate the English With by Cum? Why is Cum necessary? Combine the Prepositions A, Ad, Cum, E, and Ob, with the verbs Fero, Eo, Cædo, and Cado: noting in the last two verbs the quantity of the penultima and the difference of meaning.

14. *Passive.* a. How do you put into Latin the name of the Agent with a Passive Verb? Explain the construction. Translate, The Romans were defeated by Hannibal at Cannæ. Cæsar was killed by the stroke of a dagger. Cæsar was killed by Brutus.

b. Parse and translate the following sentences, and turn them into sentences with a Passive construction,

c. Rex bonos sapientesque ex civitate pepulit. Taurus meque et te et filios filiasque nostros cornu vulneravit. Puerum sententiam de hac re rogavi. Pater dicit filium ægrotare. Cupido gloriæ[1] pueri animum cepit.

d. Write down six English sentences with an active construction; and translate them into Latin with a passive construction. Translate into Latin, Actively; The girl was seized with a great desire for food. What case will Food be in, and why? What are the two meanings of Amor tuus?

Notes. i. *Genitive.* If an object can be conceived as in any way possessing another object, its noun is in the G. case. Now a *cause* can be conceived as possessing an effect: for the effect comes out of the cause, and therefore has been in, or possessed by, it. Whenever therefore an object is mentioned as a cause producing an effect, its noun may be in the G. case.

The object desired is mentioned as a cause. If I feel desire of glory, glory is mentioned as the cause that produces the feeling. The object desired therefore has its noun in the G. case.

And not only when it is followed by a noun naming desire, as Cupīdo; but also when it is followed by an adjective denoting that another object possesses the desire: as Puer est cupĭdus gloriæ, avidus novitatis, studiosus discendi, &c.

There is another noun in the G. which may come after Cupido. Cupido servi means either, Desire felt for the slave (to possess him) as in the text; or, Desire felt by the slave for some other object. Here the G. is very simple: for the slave obviously possesses the desire, as one of his own feelings. So, Amor patris means either, Love felt by the father, or for the father: and Amor meus, Love felt by me, or for me.

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15. *Passive of Intransitive Verbs.* *a.* What sort of verbs pass through all the parts of the Passive Voice? What sort cannot? Why not? What is meant by a *Cognate* noun? Write down four English sentences, with a Cognate noun in them, and translate them into Latin. Can the Cognate noun stand as A. D. W. after an Intransitive verb in the Active voice? Can it stand as S. W. to an Int. verb in the Passive? Does it ever? Through what forms can the Int. verb not pass in the Passive? Through what can it? What is meant by calling it Impersonal? Of what are the compound tenses composed?

b. Translate and parse,

Ibi variâ fortunâ pugnatum[1] est. Mox pestilentiâ laboratum est. Ad Janiculum forte ventum erat. Itaque trepidatum Romæ est. Sæpe de Româ armis certatum erat. Facile persuasum est Latinis. Satis consultatum. Ab hostibus acriter pugnabatur. Mihi a te succurri non potest.

Translate into Latin with a Passive construction, *c.*

I love the boy. I go to Rome. I have walked enough. I believe Caius. We favour rather than envy boys. I easily persuaded Caius. We cannot help you.

Distinguish accurately between the verbs Amo, Ambulo, *d.* and Parco. What is the test of a transitive verb in Latin? in English? Is Parco Transitive or Intransitive? Which is Pareo, Jubeo, Succurro, Juvo, Spare, Help, Obey, Run?

Pugnavi pugnam means, I fought a battle. Turning this into a *Notes.* Passive construction, you do not say, Pugna a me pugnata est; as *1.* you would, if Pugno were Transitive: but, A me pugnatum est; *Impersonal.* there being no S. W. to pugnatum est, unless we suppose the Infinitive Pugnare to be understood, instead of Pugna, as Cognate noun. With this Passive construction, the Agent is generally omitted (as in *b*); it being clear from the context who the Agent is.

What are the four forms you must give in parsing a Trans- 16. *Parsing* itive verb? What difference must you make in parsing an Intransitive? Why? What part of the Active verb is the same as a case of the Perf. Pass. Participle? How do you know that Int. verbs have a Perf. Pass. Participle? Why is this Participle of so much importance to us? Write down twenty Latin verbs; parse them, give their meanings, and all the English words derived from them that you can think of. Distinguish between those derived from the root of the verb, and from the root of the participle.

How is the Participle in *dus* formed? Is it Active or Pas- 17. *Participle in dus.* sive in signification? What does it generally denote? With *a.* what case is it used; and why? When may the noun in this case be omitted? What are the English compounds for translating it? but how is it generally turned in English? Write down three Latin sentences, containing the Part. in *dus* of Transitive verbs; and translate them, Actively, into English.

When a verb is Intransitive, how is the Part. in *dus* used? *b.* Why? If you require a S. W. for an Int. verb in the Pass. voice, whether in the Part. in *dus* or any other form, what must it be? Of what gender? Why?

Translate and parse, *c.*

Carthago delenda est. Vitanda est pueris improba Siren, Desidia. Improbi ex civitate pellendi sunt. Pugnandum est contra mala senectutis. Consultandum vobis de remedio,

Parcendum inimicis. Mendaci non credendum est. Puto Carthaginem esse delendam. Puto pugnandum[i] esse contra vitia. Puto inimicis esse parcendum.

d. The wicked boy must be punished. The Christian must practise virtue. The Christian must not lie. The Christian ought to spare his enemies.

Notes. i. You will really find it convenient, for the sake of clearness of construction, to regard the Pass. form of an Inf. verb as always agreeing with the Inf. Act. understood. Thus the construction of this sentence becomes plain. Puto is one of the verbs that take after it a noun in the A., and an Inf. in the A., or two Accusatives (14). Puto Carthaginem esse delendam. Carthaginem and Esse are the two Accusatives after Puto; and Delendam agrees with Carthaginem in gender, number, and case. So in this sentence. Puto pugnare esse pugnandum. I think that fighting is to be fought. Pugnare (like Carthaginem) and Esse are the two Accusatives after Puto; and Pugnandum agrees with Pugnare in gender, number, and case.

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18. Gerunds. a. How are the Gerunds formed in Latin? What do they resemble in form? What do they denote? What therefore do they resemble in use? How should they be regarded? Decline the noun which names the action denoted by the verb Dormio, Sleep.

b. Translate and parse,

Scribere bonam epistolam difficile est. Dormire inter discendum ignavi est. Puer cupidus erat eundi[i] Romam. Romulum Remumque cepit cupido in iis locis, ubi educati erant, urbem condendi. Puer dat operam scribendo epistolas. Hic herba dormiendo[ii] bene commoda est. Puella cœpit dormire. Homo natus est ad agendum. Pater Romam venit ad filias videndum. Omnis loquendi elegantia augetur oratores et poetas legendo. Discitur errando.

c. Regem occidere impium est. Patriam liberare boni civis est. Caium cupido cepit occidendi[iii] regis; liberandæ patriæ; conficiendi operis. Caius dat operam regi occidendo; patriæ liberandæ; operi conficiendo. Regem occidere puto esse impium. Caius Romam venit ad regem occidendum[iv]; ad patriam liberandam; ad opus conficiendum. Caius gloriam quæsivit rege occidendo; patriâ liberandâ; opere conficiendo. Patrem cepit cupido filiorum videndorum. Puer dat operam scribendis epistolis. Pater domum rediit ad filias videndas. Ancus rem Romanam auxit hostibus in civitatem accipiendis.

Translate into Latin, with the Gerund construction; *d.*

The boy was seized with a desire of freeing his country. I am desirous of going to Rome. Ambassadors were sent to Athens to deliberate concerning a remedy. My father sought to free his country by killing the king.

With the Part. in *dus* construction. *e.*

The Christian is desirous of practising virtue. The boy was seized with a desire of reading the orators and poets. Caius returned home to finish the works. The king seeks glory by founding a city.

Turn the sentences under Exercise (*b*) into sentences with the Part. in *dus* construction, when it is possible: and the sentences under Exercise (*c*) into sentences with the Gerund construction. Why is it not always possible to turn the former? Decline the noun Videre, Seeing; with the addition of the A. D. W. Pueros, boys; first by help of the Gerunds, and then of the Part. in *dus*. To what deficiency in Latin are these two constructions owing? *f.*

Notes. i. See v. 12, for the form of the word: Ex. 14. i, for the use of the G. case.

ii. *Dative.* Commodus, suitable, is followed by a noun in the D. case. For if an object is mentioned as suitable to, or suiting, another object; the object suited is regarded as acted on indirectly by the object suiting, being influenced or affected by it.

iii. *Part. in dus.* In the preceding (*b*) Exercise you have seen that, whether the verb be Transitive or Intransitive, the Gerunds supply the G., D., A. (with a preposition), and Ab. cases of the noun, of which the Infinitive supplies the N. and A. (without a preposition) cases. By this Exercise you see how the same cases may be supplied by help of the Part. in *dus*: but only if the verb be Transitive; and of course with a different construction.

The Gerunds, being cases of a noun, stand in the sentence like an ordinary noun. Condendi, for example, is in the G. case, as naming the object possessing the desire (Ex. 14. i). Urbem is in the A. after Condendi, as naming the object operated on directly by the building. For the Gerunds you know have an Active signification.

But the Part. in *dus* is an adjective, and therefore can only enter the sentence as agreeing with the same noun. Take the first example: Caium cepit cupido occidendi regis. The G. after Cupido is not Occidendi, but Regis (Ex. 14. i). The king causes the desire. But the object desired is not the king—to be possessed; but the king—to be killed: that is, killing the king. The construction therefore of Occidendi is: G. S. m.; agreeing with Regis in gender, number, and case. Just so, Liberandæ agrees with Patriæ; Conficiendi with Operis; and so on, throughout the Exercise.

Take then the Infinitive Occidere, Killing, as the noun in the N. case; and you have it declined thus:

N. Occidere regem. Killing a king.
G. Occidendi regis. Of killing a king.
D. Occidendo regi. To killing a king.
A. Occidere regem. Killing a king.
Occidendum regem (with prep.). Killing a king.
Ab. Occidendo rege. By, &c., killing a king.

And so on, through the P. number of Occidendus; if the objects to be operated on by the killing are more than one: as Occidendorum regum, Of killing kings. And through the f. and n. gender; if the objects are regarded in Latin as of the male or female sex: as Occidendæ reginæ, Of killing a queen: Occidendi animalis, Of killing an animal.

This use of the subordinate cases of the Part. in *dus*, like that of the Gerunds, seems owing to the absence of the Article in Latin. If there were an Article with cases, as in Greek, you might make it clear, by prefixing the Article, whether you meant the Inf. to enter the sentence as S. W., P. W., A. D. W., A. I. W., or A. W.

You see why the Part. in *dus* cannot be used in this manner, if the verb be Intransitive. Being Passive, it can only be used impersonally in the n. gender (VIII. 27), and therefore cannot pass through cases.

If the verb be transitive, you may take your choice of the Part. in *dus* and Gerund constructions. With this slight distinction. If you wish to mention the object acted on prominently, you would naturally use the former; because in that the construction of the noun is prominent in the sentence. If you wish to mention the action prominently, you would use the latter; because in that the construction of the Gerund is prominent in the sentence.

iv. *Purpose.* This Example supplies you with another method of translating the English Infinitive, when it denotes a purpose: viz., by the Part. in *dus*, with the Preposition Ad before the noun with which it agrees. Caius venit ad regem occidendum. Caius came to kill the king. But if the noun be of the m. or n. gender, you cannot tell whether it be the Part. in *dus* or the Gerund construction that is used. Regem may either be in the A. case after Ad, having the Pass. Part. in *dus*, Occidendum agreeing with it in gender, number, and case: or after the Active Gerund Occidendum, which will then be in the A. case after Ad. But if the noun be of the f. gender, or in the P. number, the construction is clear: as, Ad filias videndas, Ad filias videndum, To see his daughters.

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19. *Supines.* *a.* How are the Supines formed in each Conjugation? How many are there? How are they generally distinguished? How are they used? What may they be regarded as? Which of them serves to translate our English Infinitive, when it denotes a purpose?

b. Translate and parse,

Legati Romam venerunt consultatum de remedio. Cur te is perditum? Hoc est mirabile dictu. Puer domo exiit venatum. Cæsar quartam legionem pabulatum misit. Vidimus flavum Tiberim ire dejectum monumenta regis.

20. *Future Active Participle.* a. How is the Future Active Participle formed in each conjugation? What two parts of the Active voice are similar in form to the Perf. Pass. Participle? Mention the two ordinary uses of the Fut. Act. Participle. Now that you have four different ways for translating the English Infinitive when it denotes a purpose, give four Latin renderings of the English sentence; I sent ambassadors to ask for peace: and parse each.

b. Translate and parse,

I hope that king Pyrrhus will conquer the Romans. The boy knows that his father will soon come back. Caius returned home to finish the business. I went out to hunt. The girl went to Rome to see the king. The shepherd went out of his house to fight against the lion.

c. Write down the Gerunds, the Supine in *um*, the Part. in *dus*, and the Fut. Act. Part. of twenty Latin verbs; and introduce each of them into as many Latin sentences.

21. *Pronouns.* a. What is that Defective Pronoun, which names a third Person? Through what forms does it pass; and for what do these forms serve? Why is it called Reflective? How is it used?

b. Translate,

I hope to return soon. Caius hopes to come to Rome. The boy pretends to be asleep. The girls hope to live long. I hope to see him soon. Caius spares himself. Both Caius and you hope to live long.

c. What is the Possessive answering to the Reflective Pronoun? How is it used? Is there anything wrong in the sentence, Tu amas suum patrem? What are the Possessives answering to Nos and Vos? Decline them. Is there any difference in the use of Possessives in Latin and English?

22. *Relative.* a. What is the Relative Pronoun in Latin? Why is it so called? Decline it. What is the word called to which it relates? What is the Third Concord? Explain it. How is the case of the Relative determined? When is the Antecedent omitted?

b. Translate and parse,

Rex, qui regit alios, se regere non potest. Nullum animal, quod sanguinem habet, sine corde esse potest. Cedes villâ,

quam flavus Tiberis lavit. Harum, quas colis, arborum nulla te brevem dominum sequetur. Senex non facit ea, quæ juvenes[i]. Ego, qui bella gessi, nunc cessare videor[ii]. Eheu! te, quam amavi, cita mors abstulit. Te canam, Diva, gratum quæ regis Antium. Vobis, quæ floribus gaudetis, nectam coronas. Nobis, qui floribus gaudemus, necte coronas. Quem puerum[iii] ad me misisti, taurus cornu vulneravit. Quam servam mihi talento vendidisti, mortua est. Quod opus promisisti te confecturum, nondum confectum est.

c. Qui justus est, laudo. Quæ pulchra est, juvenes sequuntur. Quod justum est, laudo. Quæ justa sunt, laudas. Qui justus est, laudatur. Quæ pulchra est, amatur. Quæ justa sunt, laudantur. O quæ fontibus gaudes, necte mihi coronam. Cras amato, qui nunquam amavit; quique amavit, cras amato.

d. Caius idem est, qui[iv] semper fuit. Femina eadem est, quæ semper fuit. Caius talis est, qualis[v] semper fuit. Cumuli nivis tanti sunt, quanti solent esse. Opus hodie tantum est, quantum here fuit. Ego talis sum, qualis semper fui. Tu eadem es, quæ semper fuisti. Tu talis es, qualem semper te putavi. Ego idem sum senex, quem puerum cognovisti. Cumuli nivis non sunt hodie tanti, quantos antea vidi. Nemo a Diis[vi] immortalibus tot et tantas res tacitus audet optare, quot et quantas Caio dederunt. Quot homines, tot sententiæ. Spes mea eadem est, quæ tua. Lex hominum non est eadem quæ[vii] naturæ. Dos filiæ meæ tanta est, quanta tuæ. Non sum qualis eram bonæ sub regno Cinaræ. Quis[viii] venit? Quid agis? Quis deus te liberare poterit? Quot estis? Cujus filiam duxisti uxorem?

e. Hannibal, who defeated the Romans at Cannæ, was defeated by them at Zama. The slave, whom you sent to me, has broken his chains and run away. The boy, to whom you gave a book, is dead. The girls, whose father I saw, promised to come. I, who delight in flowers, love the country. You, who do not delight in flowers, love the town. He who can sing, will not; he who cannot, will. I praise that which is good; I love that which is beautiful. He who is just is praised. O thou, who delightest in flowers, weave me a beautiful garland. I am not such as I was. You are not what you were. The waves are such as I have never seen them before. What are

you looking for? Who can deny that the girl is beautiful? How many are we?

Notes. i. The Relative verb, agreeing with Juvenes as S. W., and governing Quæ, is understood from the Main verb Facit. If expressed, it would of course be Faciunt.

ii. Video, I see. Videor, I am seen; i. e. I seem. That which I am seen, or seem, to do, is conceived as moved from me to the eyes of the person who sees; and therefore has its noun in the A. case: as here, the Inf. Cessare.

iii. Notice that the Antecedent is sometimes omitted in the Main, and inserted in the Relative sentence. The A. D. W. to Main S. W. Taurus is Puerum, understood. The S. W. to Main verb Mortua est is Serva, understood.

iv. *Idem.* We translate Idem qui, either by the Relative That, or the Conjunction As, or the Relative What. Caius is the same *that* he always was: the same *as* he always was: or, leaving out the same, *what* he always was. The construction is this. Caius is the antecedent. Idem is an adjective, agreeing with Caius in gen., num., and case. Qui agrees with Ant. Caius in gen. and num.; it communicates to rel. verb Fuit the person of Caius; it is in the N. case, as S. W. to Fuit. If the English were, Caius is the same as I have always known him; the Latin would be, Caius idem est, quem semper cognovi. Quem agreeing with Caius in gen. and num., and being in the A. case, as A. D. W. after Cognovi.

v. *Talis qualis, &c.* Beside Qui, there are the Relative Adjectives Qualis, Quantus, and Quot. Qui means, Which exactly. Qualis; Which, in point of Quality; of which sort. Quantus; Which, in point of Magnitude; of which size. Quot, Which, in point of Number; how many. They are generally used in connexion with the adjectives Talis, Tantus, Tot; which mean respectively; Such, in point of Quality; Such, in point of Magnitude; Such, in point of Number. They therefore bear the same relation to these, that Qui does to Idem; which means, Such, exactly; i. e. the same.

Tot and Quot are indeclinable: but Qualis and Quantus have the same construction as Qui. Only, The word with which they agree is frequently inserted in the rel. sentence, as they are simple adjectives: whereas the word with which Qui agrees hardly ever is. Tu talis es, qualis eras. You are such as you were. Talis agrees with Tu in gen., num., and case. Qualis agrees with Tu mentally repeated, but not inserted. Tu talis es, qualem semper te cognovi. Qualem agrees with the Ant. Tu, inserted in the rel. sentence in the A. case, as A. D. W. after Cognovi. In the sentence, Cumuli nivis, &c., Quantos agrees with Cumulos, not inserted.

Both Talis qualis and Tantus quantus are often translated into English by Such as. You must therefore be careful, in translating English into Latin, to decide whether Such as means Such in point of Quality, or of Magnitude; Of such sort, or So large.

vi. Deus is an irregular noun of the 2nd Declension. S. N. and V., Deus. P. N. and V., Dei, Dii, or Dī. G. Deorum or Deûm. D. and Ab. Deis, Diis, or Dīs. The other cases are regular. The forms Dei, Deis, are seldom used.

vii. 'The law of man is not the same as that of nature.' We either repeat the antecedent, as 'the law of nature;' or insert a pronoun, as '*that* of nature.' But in Latin the Relative is sufficient by itself. Be careful therefore not to translate the pronoun into Latin in such sentences as the above.

viii. *Interrogatives.* All the Relatives are used as Interrogative adjectives before nouns: as, Qui gurges? What whirlpool? Quod mare? What sea? Qualis homo? What sort of man? Quantus fluctus? How large a wave? Quot homines? How many men? Instead of Qui and Quod, Quis and Quid are used, sometimes before nouns; and almost always, when we speak of man or thing generally, and therefore the noun is omitted: as, Quis venit? What (man), Who comes? Quid quæris? What (thing), What are you looking for?

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23. *Subjunctive.* *a.* Is the Relative sentence dependent on the Main sentence for its form or sense? When a sentence is dependent on the Main sentence for its sense, how is this dependence shewn in form? What class of words generally subjoin a dependent to a main sentence? How can you tell whether the sentence joined by a Relative is independent of, or dependent on, the main sentence?

b. You have now Six different ways for translating the English Infinitive, when it names an end or purpose. What are they? Translate, by each way, I come to seek my daughter.

c. Explain the difference between the Definite and Indefinite Perfect. Give the Rule for the dependence of the subjoined verb on the main verb in Tense. Give examples.

d. Translate, by the Subjunctive mood,

He comes to fetch me. We were sent to look for him. We shall be sent to fetch him. I am coming to see you. I came to fetch you. I am come to look for you. He is gone to look for the girl. He went to look for the girl. I was coming to fetch you. Ambassadors were setting out to sue for peace. Caius had sent ambassadors to sue for peace. We were gone to look for him. We were going to look for the girl. He was come to see me. I asked the boy not to leave the house. I advise you not to go to Rome. We will strive to conquer the enemy.

VOCABULARY[1].

A.

Ab-eo, ire, ivi; go away.
Absolv-o, ĕre, i, solutus; acquit.
Ab-sum, esse, fui; am absent.
Accip-io, ĕre, cepi, ceptus; receive.
Achill-es, is; Achilles.
Acriter; sharply, fiercely.
Acŭ-o, ĕre, i, acūtus; sharpen.
Add-o, ĕre, idi, itus; add.
Adhuc; hitherto.
Adim-o, ĕre, emi, emptus; take away.
Adjic-io, ĕre, jeci, jectus; add.
Admiratio, tion-is; f.; admiration.
Admon-eo, ēre; admonish.
Adolescens, cent-is; c.; youth.
Adulatio, tion-is; f.; flattery.
Ædific-o, are; build.
Æger, ægr-i; sick.
Ægrot-o, are; am sick.
Æquor, æquor-is; n.; level, sea.
Æquus; impartial.
Æratus; brazen.
Ætas, ætat-is; f.; age.
Affig-o, ĕre, fixi, fixus; fasten to.
Ager, agr-i; m.; field.
Ag-o, ĕre, egi, actus; do, drive.
Age; come.
Albus; white.
Alg-eo, ēre, alsi; am cold.
Amabil-is, is; loveable, loved.
Ambul-o, are; walk.
Amicus; friend.
Amitt-o, ĕre, misi, missus; lose.
Amor, amor-is; m.; love.
Anima; breath.
Animal, al-is; n.; animal.
Animus; soul.
Annus; year.
Antea; before, formerly.
Anxius; anxious.
Aper-io, ire, ui, tus; open.
Ap-is, is; f.; bee.
Appell-o, are; call.
Aqua; water.
Aquosus; watery.
Ara; altar.
Arbor, boris; f.; tree.
Arcess-o, ĕre, ivi, itus; send for.
Arc-us, ūs; bow.
Ard-eo, ēre, arsi; am hot, burn.
Arduus; steep.
Argentum; silver.
Aristid-es, is; Aristides.
Arm-a, orum; arms.
Ar-o, are; plough.
Ars, art-is; f.; art.

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[1] If a verb is regular, nothing is put after it except the termination of the Infinitive mood. If nothing is put after a noun ending in *us*, as Annus; it must be understood that its G. case ends in *i*, and that it is of the m. gender. If nothing after an Adjective ending in *us*, as Albus; its G. also ends in *i*.

After a noun ending in *a*, or *um*, it is unnecessary to add anything.

Aruns, unt-is; Aruns.
Arvum; field.
Athen-æ, arum; Athens.
Atheniens-es, ium; Athenians.
Auctumnus; autumn.
Aud-eo, ēre, ausus sum; dare.
Aufero, ferre, abstuli, ablatus; take away.
Aug-eo, ēre, auxi, auctus; increase.
Aurum; gold.
Avidus; eager.
Av-is, is; f.; bird.

B.

Baculus; stick.
Beatus; happy.
Bellum; war.
Bene; well: melius; optime.
Bos, bov-is; c.; ox, cow.
Brev-is, is; short.
Britannus; Briton.
Bruma; winter.

C.

Cad-o, ĕre, cecĭdi, casum; fall.
Cæcus; blind.
Cæd-o, ĕre, cecīdi, cæsus; strike.
Cæsar, Cæsar-is; Cæsar.
Calamus; reed, arrow.
Cal-eo, ēre; am hot.
Calidus; hot.
Callidus; skilful.
Can-eo, ēre; am hoary.
Can-is, is; c.; dog.
Caniti-es, ei; f.; hoariness, old age.
Can-o, ĕre, cecini, cantum; sing.
Cant-o, are; sing.
Caper, capr-i; m.; goat.
Cap-io, ĕre, cepi, captus; take.
Caprea; she-goat.
Caput, pit-is; n.; head.
Carina; keel.
Carmen, min-is; n.; song.
Carp-o, ĕre, si, tus; pluck.
Carthago, thagin-is; f.; Carthage.
Castr-a, orum; camp.
Catena; chain.
Causa; cause.
Ced-o, ĕre, cessi, cessus; yield.
Cel-o, are; conceal.
Centum; hundred.
Cert-o, are; strive.
Cess-o, are; cease, loiter.
Christianus; Christian.
Cibus; food.
Cicero, ron-is; Cicero.
Cimon, mon-is; Cimon.
Civ-is, is; c.; citizen.
Civitas, tat-is; state.
Clam-o, are; cry out, shout.
Clamor, mor-is; m.; clamor.
Clarus; bright, illustrious.
Claud-o, ĕre, clausi, clausus; shut.
Cœlum, heaven: *P.* Cœl-i, orum.
Cœp-i, isse, tus; begin.
Cognosc-o, ĕre, novi, nĭtus; know.
Cohors, hort-is; f.; band, troop.
Col-o, ĕre, ui, cultus; till.
Color, lor-is, m.; color.
Commigr-o, are; journey, move.
Committ-o, ĕre, misi, missus; entrust.
Commodus; suitable.
Compens-o, are; compensate.
Concid-o, ĕre, i; fall to ruin.
Concrem-o, are; set on fire.
Concurr-o, ĕre, curri, cursum; run together.

Confic-io, ĕre, feci, fectus; perform.
Conscrib-o, ĕre, scripsi, scriptus; levy.
Consult-o, are; consult.
Contrarius; contrary.
Cor, cord-is; n.; heart.
Corona; crown, garland.
Corpus, por-is; n.; body.
Cras; to-morrow.
Cred-o, ĕre, idi, itus; believe.
Cre-o, are; create.
Culp-o, are; blame.
Cult-us, ūs; m.; habit.
Cumulus; heap.
Cupīdo, din-is; f.; desire.
Cupĭdus; desirous.
Cup-io, ire; desire.
Cur; why.
Cura; care.
Curr-o, ĕre, cucŭrri, cursum; run.
Curr-us, ūs; m.; chariot.
Cursus, ūs; m.; course.

D.

Damnosus; hurtful.
Damnum; hurt.
Daps, dap-is; f.; feast.
Deb-eo, ēre; owe, ought.
Decid-o, ĕre, i; fall down.
Decimus; tenth.
Decorus; glorious.
Dedoc-eo, ēre, ui, tus; unteach.
Deg-o, ĕre, i; pass.
Dejic-io, ĕre, jeci, jectus; cast down.
Del-eo, ēre, evi, etus; destroy.
Delubrum; shrine.
Dem-o, ĕre, dempsi, demptus; take away.
Derip-io, ĕre, ui, reptus; snatch away.
Descend-o, ĕre, i; descend, go down.
Desider-o, are; regret.
Desidia; sloth.
Desin-o, ĕre, sīvi; cease.
De-sum, esse, fui; am wanting.
Deus; God.
Dic-o, ĕre, dixi, dictus; say.
Di-es, ei; m. and f.; day.
Difficil-is, is; difficult.
Diffŭg-io, ĕre, fūgi; flee away.
Diligentia; diligence.
Disced-o, ĕre, cessi, cessum; depart.
Disc-o, ĕre, didici; learn.
Discurr-o, ĕre, i, cursum; run hither and thither.
Dissid-eo, ēre, sēdi, sessum; disagree.
Diu; long, for a long time.
Diva; goddess.
Divinus; divine.
Do, dăre, dedi, datus; give.
Doc-eo, ēre, ui, tus; teach.
Dol-eo, ēre; grieve.
Dolor, lor-is; m.; pain.
Dom-o, are, ui, ĭtus; tame.
Dom-us, ūs; f.; house.
Donum; gift.
Dorm-io, ire; sleep.
Dos, dot-is; f.; dower.
Duc-o, ĕre, duxi, ductus; lead.
Dux, duc-is; c.; leader.

E.

Educ-o, are; educate.
Ejic-io, ĕre, jeci, jectus; cast out.
Elegantia; elegance.

Em-o, ĕre, i, emptus; buy.
Eo, ire, ivi, itum; go.
Epistola; letter.
Equit-o, are; ride.
Equus; horse.
Err-o, are; err.
Evol-o, are; fly away, escape.
Exced-o, ĕre, cessi; depart from.
Exercit-us, ūs; m.; army.
Expi-o, are; expiate.
Expl-eo, ēre, evi, etus; fulfil, complete.
Ext-a, orum; n.; entrails.

F.

Facile; easily.
Fac-io, ĕre, feci, factus; make, do.
Facundus; eloquent.
Fanum; temple.
Fatum; fate.
Făv-eo, ēre, fāvi, fautum; favor.
Febr-is, is; f.; fever.
Fecundus; fertile.
Feliciter; happily.
Femina; woman.
Fero, ferre, tuli, latus; bear.
Ferrum; iron.
Ferus; wild.
Filia; daughter.
Filius; son.
Fio, fieri, factus; become.
Flagitium; disgrace.
Flamma; flame.
Flavus; yellow.
Flect-o, ĕre, flexi, flexus; bend.
Flor-eo, ēre; flourish.
Flos, flor-is; m.; flower.
Fluct-us, ūs; m.; wave.
Flu-o, ĕre, fluxi, fluctum; flow.
Fluvius; river.
Fœdus; foul, disgraceful.
Folium; leaf.
Fons, font-is; m.; fountain.
Form-o, are; form.
Forte; by chance.
Fort-is, is; brave.
Fortuna; fortune.
Fragil-is, is; frail.
Frater, fratr-is; m.; brother.
Fraus, fraud-is; f.; fraud.
Frem-o, ĕre, ui; roar.
Frig-eo, ēre, frixi; shiver.
Frustra; in vain.
Fŭg-io, ĕre, fūgi; flee.
Fulg-eo, ēre, fulsi; shine.
Fulgor, gor-is; m.; flash.
Fulvus; tawny.
Fumus; smoke.
Fur-o, ĕre; am mad.

G.

Gaud-eo, ēre, gavisus sum; rejoice.
Gens, gent-is; f.; race, nation.
Ger-o, ĕre, gessi, gestus; bear, wage.
Gign-o, ĕre, genui, genitus; beget.
Gladius; sword.
Gloria; glory.
Gratus; pleasant.
Gravidus; heavy: fem. pregnant.
Grav-is, is; heavy.

H.

Hab-eo, ēre; have.
Habit-o, are; dwell.
Hær-eo, ēre, hæsi; stick.

Hæres, red-is; c.; heir.
Hannibal, bal-is; Hannibal.
Herba; grass.
Here; yesterday.
Hic; here.
Hiems, em-is; f.; winter.
Hodie; to-day.
Homo, min-is; man.
Honestus; honourable.
Hora; hour.
Horridus; rough, dreadful.
Host-is, is; enemy.
Humanus; human.

I.

Ibi; there.
Ict-us, ūs; m.; stroke.
Ign-is, is; m.; fire.
Ignavus; cowardly.
Ignosc-o, ĕre, novi, notum; pardon.
Illumin-o, are; illuminate.
Imago, gin-is; f.; image, phantom.
Imbecillus; weak.
Immin-eo, ēre; hang over.
Immortal-is, is; immortal.
Imped-io, ire; hinder.
Imperium; empire.
Imper-o, are; rule.
Impiger, pigr-i; active.
Impius; impious.
Impon-o, ĕre, posui, positus; place on.
Improbus; wicked.
Inclin-o, are; decline, wane.
Incolum-is, is; safe.
Incumb-o, ĕre, cubui; lean on, brood over.
Indulg-eo, ēre, dulsi; indulge.
Infero, ferre, tuli, latus; bring on.
Inflig-o, ĕre, flixi, flictus; inflict.
Inimicus; enemy.
Injuria; injury.
Insuesc-o, ĕre, suevi; accustom.
In-sum, esse, fui; am in.
Intellig-o, ĕre, lexi, lectus; understand.
Inter-sum, esse, fui; am among.
Invĕn-io, ire, vēni, ventus; find.
Inventrix, trīc-is; inventress.
Invĭd-eo, ēre, vīdi, visum; envy.
Irasc-or, i, ratus; am angry.
Itaque; therefore.
Iter, itiner-is; n.; journey.

J.

Jac-eo, ēre; lie.
Jac-io, ĕre, jeci, jactus; throw.
Jub-eo, ēre, jussi, jussus; order.
Jugum; yoke.
Jupiter, Jov-is; Jupiter.
Justus; just.
Juven-is, is; young.
Jŭv-o, are, jūvi, jutus; aid.

L.

Labor, bor-is; m.; labour.
Labor-o, are; suffer.
Lætus; joyful.
Languor, guor-is; m.; languor.
Lanuvinus; of Lanuvium.
Latro, tron-is; m.; robber.
Latus; wide.
Laud-o, are; praise.
Laus, laud-is; f.; praise.
Lăv-o, are; also, ĕre, lāvi, lautus, wash.
Lectus; bed.
Legatus; ambassador.

Legio, on-is; f.; legion.
Lĕg-o, ĕre, lēgi, lectus; choose, read.
Len-io, ire; soothe.
Leo, on-is; m.; lion.
Lev-is, is; light.
Lex, leg-is; f.; law.
Libenter; willingly.
Liber, libr-i; m.; book.
Liber-o, are; free.
Limen, min-is; n.; threshold.
Lividus; livid, pale.
Locus; place.
Longus; long.
Loqu-or, i, locutus; speak.
Luc-eo, ēre, luxi; shine.
Lucumo, mon-is; Lucumo.
Lud-o, ĕre, lusi, lusum; play.
Luna; moon.
Lupus; wolf.
Lux, luc-is; f.; light.

M.

Machina; machine.
Mæcenas, nat-is; Mæcenas.
Magis; more.
Magister, gistr-i; m.; master.
Magistra; mistress.
Magnus; great.
Malus; bad.
Man-eo, ēre, mansi, mansum; remain.
Man-us, ūs; f.; hand.
Maritus; husband.
Mater, matr-is; mother.
Matur-o, are; prepare.
Medicina; medicine.
Medicus; physician.
Memin-i, isse; remember.
Mendax, dac-is; liar.
Mens, ment-is; f.; mind.
Mensis, mens-is; m.; month.
Ment-ior, iri; lie.
Mer-eor, ēri; deserve.
Meridi-es, ei; m.; noon.
Metu-o, ĕre, i; fear.
Met-us, ūs; m.; fear.
Mic-o, are, ui; gleam.
Miles, milit-is; soldier.
Milit-o, are; serve.
Mirabil-is, is; wonderful.
Mir-or, ari; wonder at.
Miser, ser-i; wretched.
Mitt-o, ĕre, misi, missus; send.
Mœr-eo, ēre, mœstus; mourn.
Mons, mont-is; m.; mountain.
Monstrum; monster.
Monumentum; monument.
Morbus; disease.
Mor-ior, i, mortuus; die.
Mor-or, ari; linger, stay.
Mors, mort-is; f.; death.
Mos, mor-is; m.; custom.
Mŏv-eo, ēre, mōvi, motus; move.
Mox; soon.
Mucro, cron-is; m.; dagger.
Mug-io, ire; bellow.
Multus; many.
Murus; wall.
Musa; muse.
Musica; music.
Mut-o, are; change.
Myrtus; f.; myrtle.

N.

Nasc-or, i, natus; am born.
Natura; nature.
Nauta; sailor.
Navis, nav-is; f.; ship.
Neapolis, pol-is; f.; Naples.

Nect-o, ĕre, nexui, nexus; weave.
Neg-o, are; deny.
Negotium; business.
Nemo, min-is; nobody.
Nesc-io, ire; not know.
Nex, nec-is; f.; death.
Nit-eo, ēre; shine.
Nomen, min-is; n.; name.
Nondum; not as yet.
Nonus; ninth.
Novitas, tat-is; f.; novelty.
Novus; new.
Nox, noct-is; f.; night.
Nub-o, ĕre, nupsi, nuptum; marry.
Nunquam; never.
Nuntius; messenger.

O.

Oblivio, on-is; f.; forgetfulness.
Obnoxius; liable.
Obviam; in the way, to meet.
Occĭd-o, ĕre, i, casum; fall, perish.
Occīd-o, ĕre, i, cisus; kill.
Oculus; eye.
Omn-is, is; all.
Opera; work, labor.
Opes, op-um; f.; wealth.
Oppidum; town.
Opt-o, are; wish.
Opus, per-is; n.; work.
Orator, tor-is; orator.
Orbis, orb-is; m.; globe.

P.

Pabul-or, ari; forage.
Parc-o, ĕre, peperci; spare.
Parens, ent-is; parent.
Par-eo, ēre; obey.
Pars, part-is; f.; part.
Parvus; small.
Pastor, tor-is; shepherd.
Pater, patr-is; father.
Pat-ior, i, passus; suffer.
Patria; country.
Paucus; few.
Pauperi-es, ei; f.; poverty.
Pax, pac-is; f.; peace.
Pecc-o, are; sin.
Pecus, cor-is; n.; herd.
Pelagus, pelag-i; n.; sea.
Pell-o, ĕre, pepuli, pulsus; drive.
Percut-io, ĕre, cussi, cussus; strike.
Perd-o, ĕre, idi, itus; destroy.
Per-eo, ire, ivi; perish.
Persuad-eo, ēre, suasi, suasum; persuade.
Pestilentia; pestilence.
Pet-o, ĕre, ivi, itus; seek.
Philipp-i, orum; m.; Philippi.
Philosophia; philosophy.
Piger, pigr-i; slow.
Ping-o, ĕre, pinxi, pictus; paint.
Plac-eo, ēre; please.
Plebs, pleb-is; f.; people.
Plor-o, are; bewail.
Pœna; punishment.
Pœn-i, orum; Carthaginians.
Poeta; poet.
Pomum; apple.
Porta; gate.
Port-o, are; carry.
Posc-o, ĕre, poposci; demand.
Præclarus; illustrious.
Præ-sum, esse, fui; am before, rule over.
Præter-eo, ire, ii, itus; pass by.
Præterita; the past.
Prand-eo, ēre, i, pransum; dine.

Prex, prec-is; f.; prayer.
Procella; storm.
Prod-eo, ire, ivi; go forth.
Prœlium; battle.
Proficiso-or, i, profectus; set off.
Projic-io, ĕre, jeci, jectus; cast forth.
Promitt-o, ĕre, misi, missus; promise.
Pro-sum, prodesse, profui; do good to.
Puella; girl.
Puer, puer-i; boy.
Pugna; battle.
Pugn-o, are; fight.
Pulcher, pulchr-i; beautiful.
Put-o, are; think.

Q.

Quær-o, ĕre, quæsivi, quæsitus; seek.
Quam; than.
Quartus; fourth.
Quat-io, ĕre, quassus; shake.
Quatuor; four.

R.

Rana; frog.
Rap-io, ĕre, ui, raptus; snatch.
Ratio, on-is; f.; reason.
Recens, cent-is; recent.
Recip-io, ĕre, cepi, ceptus; undertake.
Reclud-o, ĕre, clusi, clusus; open.
Rectus; right.
Redd-o, ĕre, idi, itus; restore.
Red-eo, ire, ivi; return.
Reduc-o, ĕre, duxi, ductus; lead back.
Refulg-eo, ēre, fulsi; shine forth.
Regina; queen.
Regn-o, are; reign.
Relinqu-o, ĕre, liqui, lictus; leave.
Remedium; remedy.
Remŏv-eo, ēre, mōvi, motus; remove.
Res, r-ei; f.; thing.
Resist-o, ĕre, stiti; resist.
Respond-eo, ēre, i, sponsum; answer.
Rever-cor, eri; reverence.
Revoc-o, are; recall.
Rex, reg-is; king.
Rid-eo, ēre, risi, risum; laugh.
Rog-o, are; ask.
Rump-o, ĕre, rūpi, ruptus; break.
Rus, rur-is; n.; country.

S.

Sacerdos, dot-is; c.; priest.
Sæpe; often.
Salt-o, are; dance.
Salutar-is, is; salutary.
Sanguis, guin-is; m.; blood.
Sapiens, ent-is; wise.
Sardes, Sard-ium; f.; Sardis.
Satis; enough.
Scand-o, ĕre, i; climb.
Scelus, ler-is; n.; crime.
Sc-io, īre; know.
Scipio, on-is; Scipio.
Scrib-o, ĕre, scripsi, scriptus; write.
Sec-o, are, ui, sectus; cut.
Sĕd-eo, ēre, sēdi, sessum; sit.
Sēd-o, are; calm.
Semper; always.
Senectus, tut-is; f.; old age.
Senex, sen-is; old.
Sententia; opinion.
Sent-io, ire, sensi; feel, perceive.

Sequ-or, i, secūtus; follow.
Serv-io, ire; serve.
Servitus, tut-is; f.; slavery.
Serv-o, are; preserve.
Servus; slave.
Sextus; sixth.
Signum; sign, standard.
Sil-eo, ēre; am silent.
Simil-is, is; like.
Simplex, plic-is; simple.
Simul-o, are; pretend.
Siren, ren-is; f.; Siren.
Sol, sol-is; m.; sun.
Sol-eo, ēre, solitus sum; am accustomed.
Solon, lon-is; Solon.
Somnus; sleep.
Sper-o, are; hope.
Sp-es, ei; f.; hope.
Spirit-us, ūs; m.; breath.
Splend-eo, ēre; glitter.
Stabulum; stable.
Statim; immediately.
Stella; star.
St-o, are, steti, statum; stand.
Strepit-us, ūs; noise.
Stud-eo, ēre; study.
Studiosus; studious, desirous of.
Studium; study, zeal.
Succurr-o, ĕre, i, cursum; help.
Super-sum, esse, fui; survive.
Supremus; last.
Surdus; deaf.
Surg-o, ĕre, surrexi, surrectum; rise.

T.

Tac-eo, ēre; am silent.
Tacitus; silent.
Talentum; talent.
Tarquini-i, orum; Tarquinii.
Taurus; bull.
Teg-o, ĕre, texi, tectus; cover.
Templum; temple.
Ten-eo, ēre, ui, tus; hold.
Tepidus; warm.
Terra; earth.
Terr-eo, ēre; frighten.
Terror, ror-is; m.; terror.
Testudo, din-is; f.; tortoise-shell, lyre.
Tĭberis, ber-is; m.; the Tiber.
Tībur, bur-is; n.; Tibur.
Tim-eo, ēre; fear.
Thalamus; chamber.
Thesaurus; treasure.
Tot; so many.
Tot-us, ius; whole.
Tract-o, are; handle.
Trah-o, ĕre, traxi, tractus; drag.
Trem-o, ĕre, ui; tremble.
Trepid-o, are; tremble.
Trist-is, is; sad.
Trux, truc-is; fierce.
Tumult-us, ūs; m.; tumult.
Turp-is, is; base.
Turpiter; basely.

U.

Ubi; where.
Ulcisc-or, i, ultus; avenge.
Urbs, urb-is; f.; city.
Util-is, is; useful.
Utrinque; on both sides.
Uxor, or-is; wife.

V.

Vacca; cow.
Vac-o, are; have leisure.

Varius; various.
Vast-o, are; lay waste.
Vei-i, orum; Veii.
Velox, loc-is; swift.
Vend-o, ĕre, idi, itus; sell.
Vĕn-io, ire, vēni, ventum; come.
Ven-or, ari; hunt.
Ventosus; windy, fickle as the wind.
Ver, ver-is; n.; spring.
Verbum; word.
Vet-o, are, ui, ĭtus; forbid.
Vex-o, are; vex.
Vĭd-eo, ēre, vīdi, visus; see.
Vigil-o, are; watch.
Vil-is, is; worthless.
Villa; country-house.
Vinc-io, ire, vinxi, vinctus; bind.
Vinc-o, ĕre, vici, victus; conquer.
Vinculum; bond.
Vinum; wine.
Vir, vir-i; man.
Virgo, gin-is; virgin.
Virid-is, is; green.
Virtus, tut-is; f.; virtue
Vis, v-is; f.; force.
Vita; life.
Vitiosus; vicious, carking.
Vitium; vice.
Vit-o, are; avoid.
Vivo, ĕre, vixi, victum; live.
Volucris, lucr-is; c.; winged creature, bird.
Voluntas, tat-is; f.; will.
Vor-o, are; devour.
Vŏv-eo, ēre, vō̆vi, votus; vow.
Vox, voc-is; f.; voice.
Vulnus, ner-is; n.; wound.

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